

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1891.

The Week.

QUAY and Dudley have at last resigned their positions as Chairman and Treasurer of the Republican National Committee, and Quay has resigned his membership of the Committee also. Dudley assigns a reason for his departure, saying, "My business engagements will demand all my time and attention during the coming year." Quay assigns no reason whatever. The Committee have deprived this event of its due moral force by passing resolutions extolling the retiring pair in every form of eulogy, and expressing deep regret at their departure. We take the liberty of putting into popular language the transaction which has just been completed. The letter of Quay should read something like this:

DEAR MR. FASSETT: You are well aware that I was accused of taking large sums of money from the Treasury of Pennsylvania, for private speculation, on two different occasions; that on the first occasion I lost the money, and was reduced to such extremity that I contemplated suicide, but that Don Cameron came to my aid at the last moment and paid back the money. So my enemies said, and although there was no truth in the story, the people of Pennsylvania believed it, and wanted me to 'get out,' and when I wouldn't get out, they turned on my candidate for Governor, Geo. W. Delamater, one of the purest and noblest men in the world, and defeated him by over 16,000 majority (you remember that Harrison had about 80,000 majority for President two years before). Since that time a large number of Republican newspapers in different parts of the country have been demanding my resignation as Chairman of the Committee, and predicting disaster next year if I continued to hold my present position. My enemies in Pennsylvania have gone so far as to demand my resignation as a member of the Committee also, and for the same reasons. In short, there is much ground to apprehend that if I remain Chairman, the party will be beaten next year, and that if I remain a member of the Committee, we shall lose Pennsylvania. For these reasons, which I trust you will find satisfactory, I have forwarded to the Hon. William H. Andrews, Chairman of the Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania, my resignation as the member of the Republican National Committee from that State. The greater usually includes the less, but in this case the less includes the greater.—Yours very truly,
M. S. Q.

This is the substance of what they are all saying to each other in private. If a letter had been written by Dudley marked by the same spirit of frankness, it would allude in feeling terms to the unreasonable prejudice existing in Indiana and elsewhere to the use of money for the purchase of votes in "blocks of five." Also, to the unfounded and unwarranted belief that he (Dudley) wrote a letter authorizing the disbursement of a large sum for that purpose two or three years ago, which is false; and besides, everybody knows that the Democrats would have done the same thing if they had only had the money.

A month after his accession to the Presidency Mr. Harrison appointed to the Collec-

torship of this port Joel B. Erhardt, a Republican politician of prominence, who had served as Assistant District Attorney in Brooklyn years ago, and later as United States Marshal, and who had established peculiar claims to recognition by running as the Republican Machine candidate for Mayor in 1888. Col. Erhardt has undoubtedly made as good a collector as any partisan can. The business community has been well satisfied with the business conduct of the office. Its political side has been less objectionable to enlightened public sentiment than could reasonably have been expected. The Collector has enforced the Civil-Service Law so faithfully that the "boys" have been "kicking" ever since he went in, while there has been less manifestation of "Custom-house influence," in its more offensive forms, than ever before. He has now resigned midway of his term. Why? He himself frankly tells the reason, like the straightforward man that he is. Here it is, the most important sentence being italicized:

"I have resigned because the Collector has been reduced to a position where he is no longer an independent officer, with authority commensurate with his responsibility. I have given bonds for \$200,000. I have received for the Government during the twenty months last past \$322,697,135 40, and I am all the time personally responsible for enormous values in money and in merchandise. My duties are necessarily performed through about 1,500 employees. I am not willing to continue to be responsible for their conduct unless I can have proper authority over them. *The recent policy of the Treasury Department has been to control the details of the customs administration at the port of New York from Washington, at the dictation of a private individual having no official responsibility.* The Collector is practically deprived of power and control, while he is left subject to all responsibility. The office is no longer independent, and I am. Therefore we have separated."

We assume that the "private individual" here referred to is "Tom" Platt. In other words, Col. Erhardt gets out because he could stay only on condition of being "Tom" Platt's man.

The *Tribune's* explanation of Collector Erhardt's removal is about as frank as words could make it, and practically confesses that Mr. Erhardt had to go because he insisted upon running the Custom-house on business principles and living up to the Civil-Service Law. It is also about as cynical in its contempt for enlightened public sentiment as words could make it, and practically declares that the Harrison Administration believes in the spoils system, and is not afraid to say so. Considering the natural tendency of politicians and organs towards indirection, it is a great help to a correct understanding of the situation when a party is so ready to tell the truth about its principles and practices. The President's course in this matter, we need hardly add, is most discreditable. In his letter of acceptance, Mr. Harrison asked the support of voters upon the basis of this pledge:

"In appointments to every grade and de-

partment, fitness and not party service should be the essential and discriminating test, and fidelity and efficiency the only sure tenure of office. Only the interest of the public service should suggest removals from office."

A difference was made in the loan market last week between notes payable in gold and notes payable in dollars. This difference amounted to 1½ per cent. in the rate of interest charged, the former being at 4½, and the latter at 6 per cent. This was the case as to time loans on collateral security. A discrimination is likewise made as to mortgage loans on real estate, and this discrimination is likely to become general. It is the first practical effect of the silver craze, or rather it is the first visible manifestation of it. The first practical effect has been a paralysis of trade in the face of cheering conditions in the natural world. The *Financial Chronicle* pictures the situation in moderate language, saying in its last number:

"Wall Street affairs continue to move on in a state of almost semi-panic, with no real cause for the condition, and indeed with every material fact and promise favoring confidence except those which relate to the wretched condition of our currency produced by silver coinage. The feeling of fear and uneasiness is so prevalent that a whisper respecting the strongest house on the street puts the markets in a quiver, while a suspicion expressed as to the payment of a dividend not due for months yet, is sufficient to make the prices of the property affected drop many points. It is easy to recall periods of general distrust when stock values and rates for money were in much the same position as now, but never an occasion like the present, when these features were prominent and yet railroad earnings, net and gross, were increasing, and the country on the verge of realizing abundant harvests of food products, with a European demand awaiting the surpluses at fair prices."

It is idle to suppose that the holders of ready money worth at the present time 100 cents per dollar in gold are going to see it converted into something less valuable without an effort to keep it in as good condition as it now is. The extra 1½ per cent. interest charged for loans payable in dollars over those payable in gold represents the amount of risk that before the maturity of the loan we shall be on the silver basis, or at any rate off the gold basis. There is some difference between the two phrases. We shall be off the gold basis whenever gold commands any premium, however small, over "current funds." We shall not be on the silver basis, strictly speaking, until gold commands a premium over current funds equal to the difference between gold bullion and silver bullion under our legal ratio, about 24 per cent. at the present time. A free-coinage bill with a clause making silver bullion exchangeable at the mint for legal-tender silver certificates, without any delay for coinage, would carry us more rapidly to this point than the present law is doing.

The question may be asked, Why do not the Clearing-house banks make their loans payable in gold, and thus take time by the

forelock? They may be compelled to do so eventually. They may be driven by the action of their own depositors to take this step, but up to this time they have reasoned with themselves that the step would not be popular; that it would expose them to the attacks of demagogues and ignorant people in Congress, and that it will be best for them in the long run to take pot-luck with the country. At the same time it is an observed fact that the Clearing-house banks hold an amount of gold at least equal to their capital stock, so that in any contingency their own shareholders are protected against a depreciation of the standard of value. It may be said that the depositors are entitled to draw out at all times as good money as they put in; but as the banks do not make the money that is deposited with them, they cannot guarantee it as against the possible acts of the Government. The situation is a deplorable one, and the only thing tolerably certain is that before any free-coinage bill can become a law, we shall be off the gold basis. The holders of ready money will see to that.

The campaign of the People's party in Ohio was opened by Senator Peffer, at Cleveland, on Thursday. He said:

"We want more money and cheaper interest. Free coinage of silver is but a drop in the bucket which must be filled. That high tariff tends to increase the volume of money is a fallacy. The glaring need of the people is more money. The eventual outcome of political parties in America must be that the money-lenders will organize in opposition to the debtor class."

This is undoubtedly the "keynote" of the party which Mr. Peffer represents, and it is well for the politicians of other parties, who are tumbling over each other in their haste to make silver dollars for these people, to understand that silver is only one instalment of the demand for cheap money. Silver is the product of labor. It is not to be had for nothing. Free coinage will not help "the debtor class," or that portion of it that Peffer speaks for. What they want is the kind of money that is made of lamp-black and rags. As surely as they carry their silver programme, so surely will they push their demand for paper.

The action of the Maryland Democratic State Convention regarding the silver question is most significant. Senator Gorman controlled the assembly, and was endorsed by it for reelection. Last winter he was a pronounced advocate of free coinage, and nobody then doubted that his party in his State would approve his position this summer. In the meantime, however, discussion of the question has so weakened the case of the free-coinage men that the Convention on Thursday refused to say a word in favor of the policy, and adopted a plank which, so far as it has any meaning, takes ground against it, since it declares that "the power of Congress to coin gold and silver ought not to be so exercised that

gold coin or silver coin will become a commodity, and so disturb the operations of trade, but in such manner that the dollar in gold coin and the dollar in silver coin shall be of equal exchangeable value in all the markets of the United States." This is as far as a convention could reasonably be expected to go which was endorsing for reelection a Senator who had favored free coinage, and it represents a distinct victory for the cause of honest money. Mr. Gorman's prominence in the Democratic party only emphasizes the significance of this proof that the free-coinage craze is beginning to abate.

The result of the Kentucky election on Monday ought to open the eyes of those people who have supposed that the rise of the Farmers' Alliance threatens the supremacy of the Democratic party in the South next year. For some days past, reports have been coming from representatives of the Alliance and of the People's party that the Democrats were in great danger of losing the State. The returns show that the Democrats have elected their candidate for Governor by fully the usual majority of about 30,000, and by almost twice as large a majority as at the last gubernatorial election in 1887, when Buckner's plurality fell short of 17,000. The Alliance succeeded in electing some of its candidates to the Legislature over the Democratic nominees, and in other cases induced Democratic conventions to take up its favorites. In this way it will exert considerable influence upon legislation, but without in any way shaking the hold of the Democratic party upon the State. It is entirely safe to predict a similar result in every other Southern State. The Republican party still stands as the champion of the Force-Bill policy in the South, and however much the Democrats of that section may disagree as to minor questions, they will all stand together in opposition to that party when the national contest of next year comes on.

The most important result of Monday's election was the adoption of the new Constitution by a tremendous majority, a large proportion of the Democrats voting for it, together with nearly all the Republicans, the Farmers' Alliance, People's party, etc. The State has long stood in pressing need of a revision of its fundamental law, the existing instrument having been framed in 1849, and its antiquated character being well illustrated by its provision that the right of property in slaves is "before and higher than any constitutional sanction." Unfortunately the high hopes which were entertained of the convention called to frame a new constitution were not realized. It did, indeed, incorporate many needed reforms, like the prohibition of lotteries and the substitution of the Australian system for the *viva-voce* form of voting which has hitherto been maintained; but it also shovelled in all sorts of minor provisions which are either bad or of doubtful

value, and which in either case should be adopted as legislative statutes, rather than as parts of the framework of government. Moreover, the work was done in a most slovenly manner as regards style. For example, one clause provides that the Governor shall be elected in odd-numbered years; another that Representatives shall be elected in even-numbered years; and still a third, that the Governor shall be elected "by the qualified voters of the State at the time when, and places where, they shall respectively vote for Representatives"! An even more ridiculous blunder is committed in the section which provides that "no person shall be eligible as judge of the Circuit Court who is not less than thirty-five years of age." The courts will have plenty of work straightening out such contradictory and absurd provisions.

Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania is a most exasperating kind of man to the average Philadelphian. When the bank scandals there became to a certain extent public, and Bardsley's resignation left a vacancy in a plundered office, the Governor stepped in and filled the vacancy with a Democrat of his own kind of independence, who cannot be counted on at all to conceal matters simply because they reflect on the character of prominent Philadelphians. The fathers of the city carried to the courts the question of their own right to make this appointment; but the courts sustained the Governor. Now this same truth-seeking Governor has, in a very easily understood letter, asked Secretary Foster to authorize him to appoint a committee of three or five citizens to examine the books of the Keystone Bank. The simple meaning of this request is, that Gov. Pattison has no faith in any thorough investigation of the bank scandals by the Councils Committee and their and the Mayor's experts, and so he proposes to take a hand in the investigation himself. There is a blending of city and State interests in the office of the Philadelphia city Treasury, and it is this which gives the Governor an excuse for making his request, and takes from the Secretary of the Treasury any excuse for assisting in concealing the frauds by rejecting Gov. Pattison's petition. Mr. Foster has, in fact, given his consent to it.

The new Republican Senator from New Hampshire, Dr. Jacob H. Gallinger, has had his portrait painted by the old Republican Senator from the State, "Bill" Chandler. The picture is done in Chandler's newspaper, the *Concord Monitor*, and the artist puts his full name at the bottom. We reproduce a few touches:

"The necessities and desires of Dr. Gallinger were money and office. For money he was employed by Samuel W. Hale in his canvass for the Governorship in 1883, and no money-barrel has he ever seen, from that of the Montreal railroad in 1878 to that of Gen. Alger in 1891, without an intense desire to tap it and absorb its contents. Unworthy ends by corrupt means have been his unvarying aim. In 1887 he sold himself and his influence as member of Congress and Chairman of the State Committee to the Concord Railroad for \$5,000 or

more; and he superintended the expenditure of the money of that company among venal Republicans over the State to the amount of \$100,000 or more. With the aid of the mercenary force thus organized, he usurped the State Committee Chairmanship in 1888 and became an unsuccessful candidate for Senator in 1889.

"He originated or joined numerous wild-cat endowment orders, and is more responsible than any other living man for the injury, suffering, and disgrace caused to New Hampshire by these wicked and reckless organizations; and he took care to obtain in cash his own large fees as supreme medical examiner, and to secure for himself the earliest benefit certificates issued. With his barrel full of money obtained thus and from the Concord Railroad, he sent out during the canvass of 1890 his circulars demanding the Senatorship, and brought on an issue in the town and ward caucuses which of itself was sufficient to cause the close result in the State on members of the Legislature."

It has long been believed that there was about as much rascality to the square inch in the management of the Republican party in New Hampshire as could be found anywhere in the country, but it was never expected that one United States Senator would turn State's evidence against another.

The *Times* publishes the charges of Cashier Banta of the New York Life Insurance Company against the President and in a general way against the executive management of the company. These charges have been going about by word of mouth for years, but in a very vague and indefinite way. Nobody except the committee who investigated them could have understood their gravity. It is hardly possible to imagine anything worse than these charges, and it is difficult to understand how the cashier could be retained in office after the President had been acquitted of them. The truth or falsity of them cannot be pronounced upon by the newspaper press, but there is one charge that the Legislature ought to look into at an early day, viz.:

"(7.) They have spent immense sums under the name of 'law expenses,' presumptively in corrupting Legislatures, to defeat investigations, and to procure the passage of laws making speculation in stocks more easy."

The *Times* says that the money paid for corrupting the Legislature was paid to lobbyists, "the most notable of whom is well known in public life in this city." Why not give his name?

The *Tribune* thinks that our exports of flour to Cuba will at once be doubled as a result of the reciprocity agreement. As we already supply three-fifths of Cuba's total consumption of flour, this would mean that we are going to absorb all of Spain's share in the trade, and also that the consumption is to be increased by one-fifth. But the Spanish millers are left with a discrimination of one dollar a barrel in their favor, and will probably remain in the field, while there is no likelihood whatever of an increased consumption of flour. The majority of the population almost never taste wheat bread,

their staple diet being native fruits, corn, and beans. Moreover, the main cause of Cuban complaint is not touched by the so-called treaty—that is, our McKinley tax on imported tobacco. It is that which has closed the factories in Havana and created widespread distress. If we would agree to remove that, it might be in order to talk about the relief brought to misgoverned Cuba by "American diplomacy," and to expect that the grateful and prosperous Cubans would double all their American orders. As it is, they will have to put up with Mr. Blaine's barren assurance that the President will make the tobacco grievance the subject of a "special note." What the Spanish Minister asked was, that the President would agree to recommend to Congress a reduction of the tobacco duties; if he thinks to secure this through that "special note," he will be very much mistaken. With the tobacco duty remaining as it is, with Cuban finance in a bad way, and likely to be in a worse one as a result of the treaty, and with the power expressly reserved to the Cortes to upset the whole arrangement, the measure is not fitted either to give great satisfaction in Cuba or notably to increase our export trade. We already have the best of Cuba's foreign commerce, and our exporters would do better to continue to rely upon their natural advantages than to count too much upon this defective reciprocity agreement.

The news item sent out from Washington in regard to the increase of English exports to Brazil, suggests comparison with the state of our own commerce with the same country. This will at once show that we are making no impression upon the trade in cotton manufactures. English exports of cotton goods to Brazil for the first four months of this year amounted to \$7,591,440, as against \$3,702,215 for the corresponding period of 1890. Our own exports of similar products to the same country for eleven months ending with May 31, 1891, were of a value of \$505,610, as compared with \$726,574 for the same part of the preceding fiscal year. Now, as the treaty of reciprocity secured us special advantages in the matter of cotton goods, this result is considerably discouraging, and goes to prove that the *Rio News* was correct in assuring English cotton-manufacturers that they need not fear their American rivals even under the treaty. It may be said that the reciprocity arrangement has not yet had time to work; that may be so, but, in so far as it has worked, it would seem to be no great help to our exporters of cotton goods, as their shipments for May of this year, the second month of the treaty's operation, were \$15,000 less than for May, 1890. We cannot extend the comparison to exports of woollen and linen goods, for the very good reason that we have none. In the matter of manufactures of iron and steel, horse-cars, engines, etc., the Treasury returns show a marked gain in our Brazilian trade, fully as great as that reported for England. So, too, in exports of wood and lumber, and manufactures thereof, considerable

advance is shown. No figures are given for the exports of agricultural implements to Brazil, but for South America as a whole, a great falling off appears—upwards of \$870,000. This is principally due to the Argentine collapse, it should be said. The whole matter comes down to this: Brazil is having a great business and speculative "boom," and we are getting a share of her expanding foreign commerce in those products in which we were able to compete before the treaty. That measure does not seem to have had any marked effect one way or the other. Certainly it has not shut out England, and, just as certainly, the only increased demand that we have been able to supply is a mushroom growth which may die away as suddenly as did the Argentine.

A sort of modified Farmers' Alliance is gaining considerable headway in Switzerland. It calls itself an Agrarian League, and appears to have been evoked by the writings and public appeals of one Gottfried Keller. He is a farmer in the Canton of Zurich, and makes his war-cry, "The Land and the Government for the Farmer!" In the course of a summary of his views and demands he says: "The State should be, above all things, for the service of agriculture; the universities should be lessened or suppressed and primary education simplified; the public service should be conducted with the strictest economy; borrowing on mortgage should be on easier terms, and the land should be taxed not on the basis of its assessed value, but on that of the income derived from it; and the exaggerated claims of workingmen in the cities should be combated, particularly in the matter of shorter hours of labor." The last specification marks a peculiar phase of the movement, in its avowed setting the laborer of the field against the laborer of the shop. The League is reported to be spreading rapidly through the rural regions, and has at least this testimony to its growing strength, that the labor journals are outspoken in hostility to it. But the organ of the farmers—they have one already—accepts this as inevitable, and as a part of the conflict that is to come, saying: "We are positive that a deep chasm separates the industrial workingman from the farmer. . . . The latter knows that he gets nothing without hard work, and it is a mystery to him how the workingman cuts down his hours of work from 12 to 11, to 10, and finally to 8, all the while increasing his wages by means of strikes, and still asking for more." Whatever may be the fate of the Swiss organization, it will serve to call attention to the lengths to which State Socialism has gone in Switzerland, in the interest of the workingmen of the cities and to the oversight of the laboring men in the country districts. It may also have the effect of giving the Catholic authorities pause, and making them less ready to go the whole Socialist figure than they appeared to be at the time of their Congress at Olten, last year.

THE DEMONETIZATION OF SILVER.

SENATOR STEWART of Nevada takes exception to our statement that he voted for the act demonetizing silver in 1873. On the 10th of January, 1871, there was a bill under consideration in the Senate of the United States (S. 859) in relation to coinage. It named as silver coins of the United States the half-dollar, the quarter-dollar, and the dime, and no other, and it contained also a section in these words:

"Sec. 18. And be it further enacted, That no coins, either of gold, silver, or minor coinage, shall hereafter be issued from the mint other than those of the denominations, standards, and weights herein set forth."

The legal-tender faculty of silver coins was by this bill limited to one dollar. Mr. Stewart was then a member of the Senate, and participated in the debate on this bill. The vote on the passage containing the foregoing sections, provisions, and prohibitions was yeas 36, nays 14. Mr. Stewart is recorded among the yeas and Mr. Sherman among the nays. The bill, after passing the Senate, was sent to the House, where it failed for want of time. All this took place in the Forty-first Congress, third session.

The same bill substantially was considered and passed by the House in the next Congress and came before the Senate on the 26th of December, 1872. The clause relating to silver coins was in these words:

"That the silver coins of the United States shall be a dollar, a half-dollar, or fifty-cent piece, a quarter-dollar, or twenty-five-cent piece, a dime, or ten-cent piece; and the weight of the dollar shall be 384 grains; the half-dollar, quarter-dollar, and dime shall be respectively one-half, one quarter, and one-tenth of the weight of said dollar, which coins shall be a legal tender at their nominal value for any amount not exceeding five dollars in any one payment."

Section 18, prohibiting the issue of any other coins than those named, was in this bill in the words already quoted.

The standard silver dollar was and is 412½ grains, not 384 grains, as provided in this bill, but that fact is not material, since the dollar here spoken of was not to be full legal tender. It was to have the same legal-tender faculty as two half-dollars. The history of this particular provision is that the House Committee on Coinage thought it would be a good idea to have a coin approximately equal to the French five-franc piece. So they put into the bill a dollar of 384 grains, exactly equal to two half-dollars. The French five-franc piece weighs 385.8 grains, nine-tenths fine.

The Senate Committee on Finance amended this section of the bill by substituting a trade dollar of 420 grains for the would-be five-franc dollar. The clause limiting the legal-tender faculty of all silver coins to \$5 in any one payment was retained. The bill as amended was passed by the Senate on the 17th of January, 1873, without a dissenting vote. That Mr. Stewart was present, and was giving his attention to the bill, is shown by the record of the debate, his name appearing on the same page which records the passage of the bill. There were some minor matters of disagreement between the House and the Senate which went

to a Conference Committee, but the demonetization of silver was not one of the points of disagreement, as we have seen. Both houses had agreed that silver in any form should not be legal tender for more than five dollars. The report of the Conference Committee was agreed to by both houses without a dissenting vote.

The Coinage Act was printed thirteen times in the course of its passage through Congress, for the use of members, and documents were repeatedly and officially sent to members of the Senate and House calling their attention in capital letters to the fact that the silver dollar was discontinued by the bill. Perhaps Senator Stewart did not know what was meant by discontinuance of the silver dollar. That would not be at all wonderful, seeing how heedless he is, and seeing, also, that the silver dollar had been for a long time a disused coin, and was almost as rare a curiosity as the *stater* of ancient Greece.

Mr. Stewart raises considerable dust (it is nothing but dust) about the omission from the *Congressional Globe* of the usual statement that section 15 of the bill had passed. There is a hiatus here which can only be accounted for by an oversight on the part of the *Globe* reporter or of the foreman of the printing-office. The bill itself was in the hands of every Senator as well as in the hands of the Reading Clerk of the Senate. The record of the latter, which is the only legal evidence, says that this section was agreed to. What was Mr. Stewart doing at this time? Was he waiting, with a copy of the bill in his hand, and with section 15 before his eyes, to see what the *Globe* would say about it at some future time? Why did he not call attention to the fact that here was a clause demonetizing silver? Why did he not, within a day or two, call attention to the fact, if it were a fact, that section 15 had not been actually passed? Evidently because he and everybody else at that time were in favor of section 15. Mr. Stewart had voted for a similar section in the bill of 1871.

Mr. Stewart says:

"Let it be borne in mind that President Grant signed the bill demonetizing silver on the 12th of February, 1873, and that in January, 1875, he signed the specie-resumption act and returned it to the Senate with a recommendation that two or more mints be constructed to coin silver dollars to provide for the resumption of specie payments in 1879, the date fixed for such resumption."

This is not very important except as illustrating Mr. Stewart's recklessness. There is not a word about "silver dollars" in President Grant's special message accompanying his signature of the Specie-Resumption Act, nor a word to show that he meant silver dollars. He speaks about "fractional currency," and about "change," and about "silver," meaning, of course, the only silver that the generation to which he belonged had been accustomed to, namely, silver half-dollars, quarters, and dimes. If he had reference to legal-tender silver dollars, he would undoubtedly have said so.

Mr. Stewart says further:

"I defy any one to point out a sentence or a suggestion in the *Congressional Globe* during all the time the Coinage or Mint Act of 1873,

or any other Coinage or Mint Bill, was under consideration, intimating any purpose or intention to omit the silver dollar from the list of coins, or in any way to limit or restrict the coinage of silver."

This is another sample of Mr. Stewart's recklessness. He can hardly be ignorant of the fact that Clarkson Potter, W. L. Stoughton, Samuel Hooper, and William D. Kelley (although Mr. Kelley afterwards denied it) all discussed the demonetization of silver as a feature of this bill, and that their remarks are in the *Congressional Globe*—for example, in the debate in the House on the 9th of April, 1872. We might make other references from the same volume, but this one is sufficient to brand Mr. Stewart's assertion as being of no higher value than his assertion that he did not vote for the demonetization of silver. He voted for it twice, to wit, on the 10th of January, 1871, and again on the 17th of January, 1873.

THE DEPRESSION IN RAILWAY STOCKS.

A SURVEY of the railway field does not disclose any sufficient reason for the extremely low prices at which most railway stocks are now selling. The earnings of the roads have been, with few exceptions, good, and they have been increasing. Several roads have advanced their rate of dividend. There has been a cessation of the mad competition for new territory, and the competition for existing business has been probably less furious than in some former years, even if it has not yet been brought within the bounds of moderation. There have been no expensive strikes, and no more destruction through the action of the elements or from accident than is incident to the business. Moreover, harvests of an unusually bounteous character are either already secured and beginning to move, or are in such promising condition that it would be an excess of caution to disregard the practical certainty of profitable business; and probabilities of this kind are almost always indicated by advancing prices for stocks. People who have not got them think they would like to get them, and people who have them think they would rather keep them unless they could sell them at an advance.

The fact that people would like to buy stocks, however, has no tendency to raise their prices unless they have the money to pay for them. It does not constitute an "effective demand." This money may either be their own or it may be borrowed, and the first question that we would ask is, Have people at present any large amount of money to invest? If we look back three or four years, we see that a great deal of money has been wasted in unproductive enterprises. We do not refer to speculative schemes like those of M. Secrétan and his copper syndicate, because such schemes did not necessarily involve the loss of any money at all. What some lose others gain, as in any gambling venture, and although there may be some incidental waste of money through the disturbance of trade, the loss is not very considerable. But in the enterprises to which

we refer, money is actually sunk without any return, or at least without any adequate or immediate return.

The greatest single instance of this kind is, of course, the Panama Canal. This frightful blunder cost the French people enormous sums, and the loss is probably a total one. But although the loss had to be borne by the French people, it was none the less a diminution of the world's stock of capital. The individual sufferers were the French people, whose savings were swept away, but so close are the business relations of all countries now that the loss of these savings must have affected the rate of interest throughout the world, either causing it to rise or preventing it from falling, or rendering it impossible to borrow money for undertakings that could otherwise have procured it.

In this country very heavy losses were met with, owing to the construction of numerous lines of railway, principally in the Southwest, that have produced no return upon the investment, and owing to some minor causes that tended to the same result. These losses may be only temporary, but they are evidenced by the reduction or cessation of dividends, and the owners of these stocks are a good deal poorer than they were four years ago. It might be said that hardly a family in New England, the great investing region, has not been more or less inconvenienced by these losses, and it is a necessary consequence that they have less money to invest than they did have.

A more recent loss has taken place in the Argentine Republic. Here, again, the losers were not American citizens, but the loss, whatever it may be in amount and by whomsoever suffered, must necessarily have had its effect upon the money markets of the world. It seems to have had, indeed, a very marked effect, and it can only be explained upon the supposition that the market had not recovered from the previous losses; that is, that the savings of the people had not yet filled up the deficit. At all events, there is every indication that there is a scant supply of money in London for investment in new enterprises, and this scarcity must have its effect upon the markets of the world.

While these causes have undoubtedly operated to diminish the supply of money available for new enterprises, it might seem that they would not account for the indisposition to lend money to those who desired to take advantage of the prospective increase in the earnings of railroad properties. It has seldom been the case in this country that any one who desired to speculate at a time when greater activity in business was looked for, has not been able to borrow money upon the collateral security of his investments. We think that the uncertainty as to the future standard of value in this country is the true cause of this unwillingness to loan. It is common to argue that it will make no difference in the value of railroad stocks if we do come down to a silver basis. The reasoning is, that although prices will be higher, the charges that railroads will make for their services will be correspondingly increased. Their expenses will be nominally increased,

but so will their receipts, and the standard that is used to measure them is immaterial. It follows, therefore, that the railways will be just as well able to pay the interest on their gold bonds as they are now, and that they will be able to pay increased dividends in silver. We fear this reasoning is fallacious. If we adopt the silver standard, it admits of no question that the prices of every article bought by railroads will rise, and that they will be obliged to raise the wages of their employees correspondingly. In so far as their obligations are for the payment of gold, they will have to buy gold at a premium. On the other hand, they are not in the situation of individuals with regard to raising their rates. To a considerable extent these rates are fixed by legislation that does not discriminate between gold and silver money. To an even greater extent they are fixed by custom, or, rather, the people have become so habituated to a progressive lowering of rates that they would be extremely impatient of an apparent reversal of this tendency.

If the railroads were thus compelled to make the same disbursements, measured by the gold standard, as at present, while they were able to secure only their present revenue, measured by the silver standard, it is obvious that their solvency might be seriously impaired. In many cases they would not be able to pay the premium upon the gold required to meet their coupons, and in all cases their rate of dividends would have to be reduced. In view of this possibility it is not to be expected that conservative bankers should lend gold, or its equivalent, upon collateral that is threatened with serious depreciation. The disasters that may follow a descent to the silver standard will be manifold, but the railroads are likely to suffer worst of all.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUNDAY STATUTES.

THE city of Hartford, Conn., which recently gave us some striking results of an investigation of her system of out-door relief, is now supplying an object-lesson in the enforcement of the Connecticut Sunday laws. Until recently the fruit-dealers of the city, most of them Italians, were allowed to make sales and keep "open shop" on Sunday. This scandalized certain people, and on Sunday, July 19, on petition of fifty-eight merchants, the fruit-shops were closed by order of the city Chief of Police. The fruit-dealers then "combined," looked up the old State laws, and got out a petition of their own, in consequence of which on the following Sunday the cigar-shops were all closed and the druggists were also inhibited from selling cigars, soda-water, and candy. Sunday newspapers were not outlawed, the Chief of Police taking the curious view that they came under the "necessity and mercy" exception of the statutes, as they could not be bought on Saturday, while cigars and candy and even soda-water (bottled) could be bought.

Except, perhaps, Massachusetts, no State has so long and persistently as Connecticut

held to Sunday laws, and rather severe ones, too. Her old "blue laws," though a satire and a fiction, had a certain meaning as such in their relation to the colony satirized, and suggested a popular tendency and feeling which to some extent prevail at this day. Every few years, by direction of her Legislature, a commission of skilled Connecticut lawyers makes a revision of her general statutes. The next Legislature sends the bulky revised volume to a committee, and, after examination, it is reported back and passed without much change. Neither the commission nor the committee ever dares to expunge or prune much the Sunday laws, though they admit them to be largely obsolete—this for fear that some strong rural Sabbatarians in the Legislature will discover the change, make a protest, precipitate a discussion, and possibly imperil the commission's whole work. It is instructive to see what are now these Connecticut Sunday laws which have come down from the spirit if not the letter of the far past, and have run the gauntlet of so many revisions.

They are not many in number, but in form are drastic and severe. Service of civil process is void between sunrise and sunset on Sunday. Persons present on Sunday, day or evening, at any concert of music or dancing "or any other public diversion" must be fined four dollars for each person and each offence. Net fishing on Sunday is prohibited under heavy penalty, but, strangely, there is no specific reference to Sunday fishing with a rod or hand-line. Sunday shooters, however, are directly reached by a section imposing a fine of from seven to twenty-five dollars, one-half the fine going to the informer; and the same penalty is imposed for having, "in the open air," implements for shooting on Sunday. The section relating generally to secular business or recreation is so sweeping that it deserves reprint *verbatim*:

"Sec. 1569. Every person who shall do any secular business or labor, except works of necessity or mercy, or keep open any shop, warehouse, or manufacturing or mechanical establishment, or expose any property for sale, or engage in any sport or recreation on Sunday between sunrise and sunset, shall be fined not more than \$4 nor less than \$1."

The foregoing, with the Sunday liquor laws, are the important Sabbatarian statutes of Connecticut with two exceptions, one of which allows Hebrews who actually observe Saturday, and refrain from secular occupations on that day, to work on Sundays, provided they do not disturb the Christian habit of attending public worship. The result of this exception is, that many of the Connecticut Hebrews "keep" Sunday instead of Saturday, and a few months ago the Hebrew Rabbi at New Haven aroused considerable criticism in the Jewish Church by actually transferring to Sunday a part of his services. The other case relates to Sunday railroad trains, which, except "for necessity and mercy," cannot be run in Connecticut on Sunday, between sunrise and sunset, save by permission of the Railroad Commissioners, and are especially prohibited between the hours of 10:30 A. M. and 3 P. M. When,

about a year ago, the Commissioners allowed a Sunday passenger train between those hours to be put on for a few miles, between Hartford and New Britain—the train bearing many church-goers—they were attacked fiercely, and quickly withdrew their assent.

What is the practical effectiveness of these ancient statutes in the old Puritan State is of course the vital point. As a fact, while the Sunday liquor laws and some others are enforced, most of them are essentially obsolete. Connecticut sportsmen do not shoot much on Sunday, partly because it is "noisy"; but many of the working classes go fishing, and many of both the upper and lower classes go sailing—the City Attorney of New Haven himself, it will be recalled, barely escaping with his life from a sailing accident two Sundays ago. Driving for pleasure is nearly universal on the Connecticut Sunday, many church members enjoying it without criticism, though it is clearly against the law. As for the Sunday "occupation" law, as related to the sale of certain small commodities, its exceptional enforcement now in Hartford shows how commonly it is slighted. The general rule in Connecticut, notwithstanding her rigid statutes, is that so long as anybody does not violate public decency or public peace, he may disregard the letter of the Sunday laws. Hence we find them enforced only locally, spasmodically, or as a form of temporary retaliation, the latter being pretty common. They are a "theory" rather than a "condition," yet, queerly enough, are rather approved by the State judges on the ground that they have utility for occasional and extreme cases.

While this failure of Sunday statutes is conspicuous in Connecticut, there is no doubt that the situation is nearly the same in many States of the Union whose statute-books are lumbered up with a great mass of laws by no means confined to Sunday. Whether in the long run it pays to retain these old statutes for the sake of a very few extreme offences under them, and keep the people as a whole in constant contact with violated laws which therefore shadow better ones and, in a sense, tend to familiarize lawlessness, is a question as old as debating clubs, jurisprudence, and civilization. Every State and community makes its contribution to the problem, but Connecticut's experience is specially valuable because of her historical place as a Sabbatarian stronghold.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE SOCIALIST PARTY IN GERMANY.

EVER since the 1st of October, 1890, when, through the expiration of the famous Anti-Socialist Law, the Socialistic party of Germany was readmitted to an equal footing with the other political parties, its leaders have shown a remarkable circumspection and a truly statesmanlike reserve of action. None of the fears which their enemies a year ago brought forward as arguments for continuing the Bismarckian policy of repression have come true. The Socialistic party has not become revolutionary—it is becoming parliamentary.

The first occasion which very clearly brought out this fact was the so-called May demonstration. While the labor parties of all other European countries, regardless of the warnings of employers and governments, selected the first day of the month for this purpose, the German Socialists, in order to avoid conflicts, postponed the celebration to the following Sunday. And although this celebration was held on a very grand scale in all the principal cities of the Empire, accompanied, in true Teutonic fashion, by a great deal of singing, drinking, and speechifying, not a single offence against the public order seems to have occurred. Even in Munich, where the police had laid hands on a "Goddess of Liberty" which was to have formed the centre of the Socialist jollification, the holiday humor of the occasion was heightened rather than dampened through the replacing of this work of art by a huge pedestal bearing the inscription, "Goddess of Liberty confiscated by authority of the police."

More recently some attempts have been made by the more radical wing of the party to force the leaders into rash measures, but these attempts have been repelled with singular promptness and dexterity. Herr von Vollmar, the most prominent of the south-German Socialists, in a speech at Munich some weeks ago, boldly came out as a firm believer in patriotic principles in general and as a supporter of the foreign policy of the present Government in particular. Thereupon there was an outburst of indignation on the part of the Radicals, and a summary demand addressed to the official party leaders, Bebel, Singer, and Liebknecht, to expel Von Vollmar from the ranks, as an "opportunist and parliamentary coward." Bebel, although himself by no means agreeing with Vollmar, flatly refused to do any such thing, upholding, in a most powerful speech before an enormous Berlin audience, the right of individual and private opinion, and vindicating Von Vollmar's claim to be allowed to plead his cause before the next party convention, which takes place in October. But Herr Bebel went further than this: he seized the opportunity to define his attitude towards parliamentary life clearly and unmistakably.

"It goes without saying," he told his hearers, "that to-day our tactics must be very different from the time when our party consisted of only two or three persons. Now that we have come to be a large party, now that millions of laborers stand at our back, our responsibility, also, has grown immensely. The Radicals say we have nothing to expect from the present capitalistic society. I think those who hold this belief had better leave all parliamentary work alone, and stand up in the marketplace and preach revolution. But I shall see to it that these gentlemen be induced to leave our ranks and to form a party of their own."

The latest proof of this growing tendency of the Socialist leaders to take a practical part in national legislation is the draft of a new party programme, drawn up by Herren Bebel, Liebknecht, and Engels, which, too, will be submitted to the October convention. This remarkable document, although maintaining the fundamental incompatibility between a "capitalistic" and a "socialistic" order of society, at the same time, by the

precision of its language and the directness of its actual propositions, marks a most decided advance beyond the vague generalities of the old Gotha platform. Among its demands may be noted woman suffrage, transference of the prerogative of declaring war from the Crown to Parliament, international arbitration, secularization of the schools, replacing of standing armies by a militia system, substitution of public medical attendance for private practice, abolition of all indirect taxes, gradual introduction of the eight-hour day.

It remains, of course, to be seen whether the wholesome constructive policy of the present party leaders will prevail, or whether in the long run the more radical elements will get the upper hand. For the moment it seems as though the Socialist party were destined to take a most decisive part, not only in the emancipation of the working classes of Germany, but in the struggle for freedom in general.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION AT BERLIN.

BERLIN, July 17, 1891.

THE fact that this summer's Internationale Kunst-Ausstellung in Berlin is of far less artistic importance than the exhibition in Paris two years ago really gives it its chief value, paradoxical as it may sound. The refusal of the Frenchmen of note to allow themselves to be represented is now an old story. A few have recognized that art is not bounded by the Franco-German frontier. There are one or two Bouguereaus, several Madeleine Lemaïres, a Gaston La Fouché, and about half-a-dozen more. But these are all, and without the modern French artist the show unquestionably proves that the very backbone of modern art is left out. I doubt if the presence of his work could have so triumphantly established the leading rank he now holds in the art world as its absence. He has kept away only to make his supremacy more wholly realized. Not even in the Champ de Mars Salon has it been so evident to me that it is to France one must turn to-day for almost all that is vigorous, alive, and progressive in art.

As a whole, the exhibition is dull and lifeless. Most of the exhibiting nations can boast of a fair technical average, and even of one or two artists of individuality and power; the average, however, is that of men who have learned their trade very thoroughly, but who have no special use for their knowledge, and can only do what has already been done again and again. The exceptions to this rule stand quite alone, and have gained no following and formed no school; in their work French influence is often manifest. In the case of several countries, particularly of America, as I shall point out later, the exhibition is scarcely representative. But still there is not even a suggestion that in any one case a collection could be got together which would rival that supposed to be merely a national show seen this spring in the Palais des Beaux-Arts in Paris.

Naturally, as far as space goes, the Germans make the most important and imposing display. Each of the large towns, Munich, Berlin, Düsseldorf, Weimar, has one or more rooms to itself, but of these it is not easy to say which is dreariest, though perhaps the palm for commonplace may be awarded to Berlin. It is significant but melancholy to

find how completely the school of Munich, once so strong, has become a thing of the past. Though the Germans of note scattered through the different rooms are not in sufficient force to relieve the general dulness, one is very glad of the chance to see their work. The veteran Adolf Menzel is always interesting, especially in his marvellous drawings, sketches in pencil and water-color on red paper, several of which have been lent by the National Gallery. There are also three of his curious pictures, so carefully studied, so badly painted: one, of some state function, with the guests eating like so many pigs off gold and silver plate, is as chock full of observation and as keen in its rendering of character as it is funny in technique; and this is quite as true of the other two. Uhde, unfortunately, sends but one portrait, which is strong enough, and stands out very prominently in the Munich rooms, but is not very good for him, and cannot be compared to his wonderful scenes from Christ's life, one of which is in the Berlin Luxembourg; in many a small London gallery he has shown to far greater advantage. Liebermann does better, and among his four examples is the well-known "Flachsscheuer in Holland," which, probably because he is a Berlin man, the authorities of the National Gallery have seen fit to lend for the occasion, though the same consideration has not been extended to Uhde, who belongs to the Munich, or South German, group of artists, little loved in Berlin. Arnold Böcklin may practically be classed with the Munich men, though one is hardly sure whether he is really German, Swiss, or Florentine. Still unknown in England, he is as fantastic and allegorical in his subjects as any English Watts, or Richmond, or Holman Hunt. But he does not believe imagination can ever be an equivalent for bad technique, and he paints with a knowledge and a fine feeling for color and decorative effect of which the Englishmen cannot boast. There is a mermaid by him here, which is delightful in the original and effective treatment of the long-scaled tail upon which gulls are resting, and yet the flesh-painting in the upper part of the body is sound and naturalistic enough to satisfy a Manet or a Roll. His power in rendering character, too, is seen in a Susanna, simply inimitable in the lecherous leers of the old elders who have discovered her at her bath. Work of this kind helps to explain that when one objects to the would-be idealists in England—the men who despise the life about them—it is not because of their choice of subject, but because of their technical shortcomings.

There are several other Germans—Piglbain, Franz Stuck, Gebhardt, for example—who show the same tendency in their selection of subject, and, almost invariably, much excellence in their treatment of it. Indeed, some of the best work in the German division is found among them. I do not include in their number the celebrated Ferdinand Keller, whose huge apotheosis of the Emperor William hangs conspicuously in a gorgeous circular gallery set aside for portraits of royalty. In his picture, the mixture of realism and would-be poetry degenerates into the ridiculous. The Kaiser, in royal robes, is surrounded by allegorical creatures in no clothes at all, and the whole conception, whatever it may mean, panders to the vulgar taste of a people who can pride themselves on the showy pretentiousness and inartistic splendor of their capital. The court portraits, too many painted by the photographic Werner, are as depressing, with the exception of a good strong pastel of the young William by Lenbach, yet they have evidently given the German portrait-painter his standard. The German landscape-painters,

except Paul Vorgang, Max Ulb, and one or two more, are feeble and insignificant to a degree incredible in these days of brilliant *plein-airistes* and impressionists. Apparently Germany has not yet awakened to a knowledge of the revolution the last few generations have worked in the art of landscape-painting. Of course there is good work by Lenbach, Meyerheim, Achenbach, and the other German painters of reputation, but it shows only the old traditional motives and methods; and the same official conventionality and formal correctness which prevail in the Champs-Élysées Salon are the characteristics of the galleries devoted to Germany.

American exhibitors have been received with every distinction. America is given the second place—immediately after Germany—in the catalogue; American pictures have been hung to advantage. But German civility cannot succeed in making the American department representative as one would like to see it. The painters who contribute are principally those of a certain little clique who happen to be just now in Paris. A clique that is led by Melchers and MacEwen and Walter Gay is clever enough as far as it goes, but it does not go very far. In it one need not look for those artists who won for American art its present position in Paris. There is nothing from Whistler, Alexander Harrison, Sargent, or Dannat, nothing from such men as Chase and Duveneck. Painters who studied in the Paris of an older generation are here, but the presence of Bridgman and Stewart makes one the more conscious of the absence of Ridgway Knight. Decidedly the most important contribution is Melchers's large church interior, of which I had so often heard but which I had never seen before. It is worthy of the fame it has brought its painter; it is full of truth and character in the study of the men and women, of sound painting in the working out of the details—the chairs and tables, and, above all, the communion cloth, which is a marvel of technique. But even in this his masterpiece I am conscious of the tendency, shared by Melchers with the men of his school, to see everything in the same way, and to let certain little tricks, which too speedily can become so many conventions, take the place of original observation of nature. All the faces are painted with exactly the same colors: the flesh of old and young alike is produced with an unchanged palette, the light is that which fills all his pictures. Moreover, there is a suggestion of the painted photograph, which has been the undoing of the Newlynites in England. Melchers is a far greater man than Stanhope Forbes, but, if he is not careful, his work eventually may be marred by the blemishes which of late are so prominent in that of the English painter. Mr. MacEwen has his clever "Ghost" of the Salon of two years ago, his "Sisters," strangely without the light or atmosphere or qualities which usually distinguish his pictures, and two little canvases which are proofs of his technical skill, but which the unkind critic might suggest savored of the pot-boiler species. Of Mr. Humphrey Moore's three large works and twenty-one small sketches, a few would have been cheerfully spared for the same number of examples from those artists who are so sadly missed. The other most notable American contributions are Bisbing's small study of Dutch cattle; Walter Gay's two pictures, dated respectively 1886 and 1889, showing the marked progress he made in the three years; Charles Sprague Pearce's three canvases, one a weak imitation of Carrière; and Julian Story's good strong portrait of his father.

But it is in the exhibit of the Society of American Wood-Engravers that American art is seen at its best: wood-engraving, at least, is adequately represented. There are several cases of the engravings of Cole, Kruell, Closson, Whitney, Kingsley, Davidson, and all the other well-known men whose work appears monthly in our magazines. Here are the principal illustrations which have been published during the last few years in the *Century*, *Harpers's*, and *Scribner's*. Almost all are carefully printed on India paper, and they form one of the most interesting compartments in the exhibition. For delicacy and refinement American wood-engravers easily hold their own. But for big, bold, direct work, probably because they have never had the same opportunity, they show nothing which begins to equal the large blocks of such men as Closs of Stuttgart or Hönemann and Ettel of Berlin, Klinkicht of Freiburg. A little group of Warsaw engravers are also rapidly coming to the fore, and there are few things better than the large engravings of Nicz and Klein. Baude and the other Frenchmen, of course, are not to be seen.

The English department is a disgrace to England. With the exception of a portrait by Frank Holl, an Alma-Tadema, and some drawings by Alfred Parsons, the only work which redeems it from hopeless commonplace is really by Americans, Shannon and Abbey, who, for some reason or another, choose to class themselves with Englishmen, as Carl Marr does with Germans. This is not so surprising in the case of Shannon, whose two portraits stand out here with unusual strength; throughout his entire art career he has identified himself with England rather than with America. But it is another matter with Abbey, and I can find really no excuse, unless it be sheer benevolence to England on his part, for this public denial of his own nationality. Alongside his countrymen, his drawings, which are almost all marked *Sold*, would no doubt have been disposed of as readily. To those who answer every objection to the Royal Academy by saying that, after all, the greatest British painters are Academicians and Associates, this exhibition would be a convincing proof of the fallacy of their argument. A few of the younger men, whether of Glasgow or London, could have given the British collection the artistic stamp with which Sir Frederick Leighton and Millais and Richmond and Watts and the other leaders of Burlington House have not succeeded in marking it. It is amusing to find how completely the Germans have failed to appreciate the holiness of the English Neo-Gothic school. Walter Crane is badly skied, while Holman Hunt's "Triumph of the Innocents," instead of the drapery and artificial lighting with which it was honored in Bond Street and Whitechapel, is hidden away in a remote corner behind the American wood-engravers, whose work, in the eyes of Mr. Hunt, is one of the unspeakable blasphemies of modern art!

Of the other countries, Italy and Denmark and Poland are by far the most interesting; Italy chiefly so because of the work of Segantini. This painter, who was seen for the first time in London at the Italian exhibition of two summers ago, is without doubt the most distinguished of all the contributors. There is not one other of such vigorous individuality, of such daring originality. He is the first man who has ever ventured to paint Alpine colors and light and effects as they really are—to give the strong black blue of the Alpine sky, the blinding white of the peaks that rise against it, the hard clearness of Alpine at-

mospheres. His technique is as strikingly original. When looked at closely, the paint seems to be laid on the canvas almost like mosaic work or an arrangement of fine colored glass threads, and yet, seen at the proper distance, nothing could be broader than the result he obtains. Whether his technical methods require infinite time and patience, or have the breadth and freedom of the effect they give, it would be impossible for any one who has not seen him at work to say. He fairly towers above the other Italians, though there are three very good and decorative Michettis and two fine Favrettos. One of these, belonging to the King of Italy, is the last work of the painter, and is not quite finished, but, for that very reason, perhaps, it has more action and "go" than almost any Favretto I have ever seen.

The interest in the Danish and Polish departments comes less from individual contributions than from all the work taken collectively. In both countries, painters, even when they do not achieve any very great distinction, evince a desire to see things for themselves, and to express them in their own way, which is delightfully refreshing, and which promises that when the man of genius really comes, he will take the art world by storm. This is in strong contrast to the prevailing tendency among Austrians to turn out the traditional "machine," which has already travelled to all the big exhibitions, and which, while it is a marvel to the multitude, is but weariness to the artist: or among Spaniards to imitate to satiety their own masters. One wonders if, in a few years' time, these second-hand Monets and Manets will seem as utterly old-fashioned and lifeless as the second-hand Fortunys do now. In the Russian division, the work which attracts most attention does so chiefly because of sentimental or literary reasons. The name of Marie Bashkirtseff has not yet lost its interest for the present generation, and indeed one of her two pictures, the portrait of a lady smiling, has more than the artist's personality to recommend it to notice; the other is as bad as the portrait is good.

The Maris family, not seen at their best, however, Mesdag, Israels, Blommers, alone would insure the artistic excellence of the Dutch galleries, where, moreover, the general level attained is very high. And much the same is true of Belgium. The average Belgian artist shows great technical proficiency, while there are several prominent painters who rise even above this high average. Fernand Khnopff of Brussels, for example, whose cleverness cannot be denied, though, with some other of his countrymen, he too often condescends to mere tricks and devices to advertise this cleverness; Albrecht de Vriendt of Antwerp, whose careful and well-studied pre-Raphaelite designs might give a few useful hints to Burne Jones, Walter Crane, and the other lights of the New Gallery; and Emile Claus, who has the best landscape in the entire exhibition. But the Belgians excel above all in sculpture, as, indeed, do the Germans, and it is curious to see how much more life and vitality there is among the mere handful of sculptors exhibiting than among the great multitude of painters; the former seem to have emancipated themselves from the conventions and traditions of the schools, and to be seeking to become something more than mere weak reflections of their masters. The only statue of note by an American sculptor, however, is Mr. Paul Bartlett's "Indian Dance."

I wish I had space left to speak in detail of the remarkably good work which Germans

are doing in the revived art of illumination. There are illuminated diplomas and addresses quite equal to the old manuscripts in their beautiful lettering and their page decoration, in which is found the same combination of conventional design and realistic illustration used by the old illuminators. It is to be regretted that the *Münchener Kalender*, the finest popular work of this kind now being done, is not represented. I must also add just a word of praise for the massive and effective cartoons in charcoal and pen produced by a German architectural draughtsman, Bruno Schmitz by name, who has had the good sense to realize that the drawing of architecture for an architect need not necessarily be absolutely devoid of interest to the outside public.

N. N.

LAND TAXATION IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, July 8, 1891.

ONE of the most interesting phases of Japan is her system of land taxation. Like so many other institutions to-day existing in this country, her method of taxation is a curious mixture of past and present—to a great degree the product of the old Tokugawa régime, but profoundly modified to suit modern conditions. During the feudal period, taxes were for the most part paid in kind by the cultivators of the soil, and were in fact a form of rent due to the Daimio, or lord of the province. The staple food of the country being rice, the taxes were almost invariably collected in that commodity. The amount paid, however, was not fixed by any national measure, but varied from province to province, depending on local customs, the humor of the Daimio, or other circumstances. Still, as a rule, the share required was seldom less than one-half the total crop, and it sometimes was as much as two-thirds. Moreover, as the established policy of the Tokugawa Government was to preserve and fix the status of all classes and conditions of men, it laid down a multitude of vexatious and arbitrary rules for the farmer, all tending to rob him of every spark of enterprise and progress. Without Government permission he could neither increase nor decrease the amount of his cultivated land; nor could he change from the cultivation of rice or paddy field (*ta*) to that of dry field (*hata*). All the conditions of land-cultivation were so carefully prescribed that the farmer had nothing to do but follow a routine that deviated little from generation to generation. It was not likely that, under such a Procrustean system of land tenure, population could advance either in wealth or in numbers; and right here is probably the explanation of the fact that the population of Japan increased so slowly during 250 years of undisturbed peace.

With the Restoration there came a great change, not only in the general status of the farmer, but in the conditions under which he cultivated the soil and paid his taxes. All the previous iron rules imposed upon him were abolished; he was given perfect liberty to buy and sell land or adopt new modes of cultivation. The system of payment in kind to each provincial lord was replaced by a national land-tax paid in money. About 1876, the value of every piece of cultivated land was appraised according to a complex and somewhat arbitrary method of valuation, and on this capitalized value a land-tax of 3 per cent. was imposed, two years later reduced to 2½ per cent. This tax, though perhaps not so heavy as in the feudal period, is still a tremendous burden on the farmer, especially when we take into consideration the various

local taxes he has to bear, as well as his general economic position.

Besides the high rate of the impost, one of the principal objections to the tax is that it falls so unequally on the different districts of Japan. Since the year 1876, when the terrier was drawn up, land values, owing to the extension of railways and other improvements, have undergone great changes. The result is that the cadastre has become antiquated, and stands in great need of revision. Last winter a reform of the whole system was demanded in the lower house of Parliament, and it will probably be carried in the next session.

Barring the discrepancies in the tax that have sprung up during the last fifteen years, the rate of 2½ per cent. on the value of the land takes, on an average, more than 30 per cent. of the annual crop of the farmer. And when we add to the demands of the national land-tax the burden of the various local taxes and charges, the farmer as a rule has but little more than one-half his crop left, especially if it be rice. Indeed, in many districts of Japan the total amount yielded by the farmer to the Government, national and local, is estimated at even more than 50 per cent. of his crop. Naturally the land-taxes contribute the largest amount of revenue to the treasury, furnishing more than 40,000,000 yen out of a total national receipt of about 75,000,000 yen, and nearly 20,000,000 yen more in the shape of local taxes.

This statement, however, gives no indication of the true condition of the Japanese farmer. In this country, where the Government performs so many functions which in America are left to the individual, a high rate of taxation is not necessarily an indication of poverty or of a low standard of living. With a sufficiency of land and a variety of crops, even the Japanese farmer can live comfortably, especially if a good fraction of his land is dry field (*hata*), on which he generally raises two crops a year. Very few of the farmers of Japan, however, are in this condition of tolerable comfort. The amount of the cultivated land of the Empire is so small (less than 12 per cent. of the whole area) and the population so large (over 40,000,000) that the land belonging to each family is absurdly insufficient. The average holding is less than two acres, subdivided into smaller parcels, which vary in size in different provinces, but average nearly one-eighth of an acre each. Thus, to picture a typical Japanese farm, one must imagine a piece of land less than two acres, cut up into about fourteen pieces, or bits, each separated from the other by a raised path of earth. Even then the picture is incomplete, since the bits belonging to one farmer are not necessarily adjacent to each other, but frequently many a fard apart. Such a beggarly amount of land, even under the most perfect system of cultivation, cannot of course yield sufficient to bring up a family according to Western standards of comfort. The idea of wages, or remuneration for labor, scarcely enters the Japanese farmer's mind; he is content if, after paying his taxes, he can in some rough fashion merely make both ends meet. At any fair rate of wages, farming is carried on at a loss in Japan. The farmer seldom eats the rice he grows, generally using barley or millet as a cheaper means of subsistence. His expenditures are on an infinitesimal scale; the clothes of the family are often heirlooms handed down from generation to generation; and as for saving anything from year to year, the practice is so little known in this country as hardly to be considered a virtue.

A system of taxation that demands 40 or

even 50 per cent. of the annual produce of agricultural labor, especially when carried on under such circumscribed conditions, would be deemed infamous in most countries of the world. In European countries a land-tax of 10 per cent. is considered high, and is perhaps nowhere strictly levied. Yet, for the present at least, the Japanese Government has no other resource. Under the present treaties with foreign nations, she is limited to a 5 per cent. duty on imports and exports. Thus her receipts from customs are insignificant, and those from other sources, as from the tobacco, beer, and income taxes, are insufficient, and Japan is driven to resort to the feudal land-tax. It is not likely, however, that this state of things will continue much longer. Under the present representative institutions of Japan, the farmers, hitherto tractable, will begin to ventilate their grievances and demand a reform of the unjust land-tax. They constitute one-half of the population, and bear practically three-fourths of the taxes. As soon, therefore, as the Parliament becomes an established institution in Japan, we may expect a determined agitation for the reduction of land taxes, for which at present there is probably no exact parallel in any civilized country.

G. D.

MARBOT IN THE AUSTRIAN CAMPAIGN.

PARIS, July 21, 1891.

AFTER the storming of Saragossa, the mission of Lannes was accomplished; he returned to France with Marbot, who, notwithstanding his wounds, had to travel with him as a courier or postilion. They arrived in Paris on the 2d of April; Marbot almost immediately left for Strasbourg and Augsburg. Napoleon was beginning a new campaign; he gained the victory of Eckmühl, and took Ratisbon by storm. Marbot took a leading part in the assault of this town. It was before Ratisbon that Napoleon was slightly wounded in the foot. Larrey examined the wound and allowed Napoleon to remount his horse immediately. The enthusiasm of the army was intense; Napoleon passed it in review, and for the first time distributed *dotations*—that is to say, pensions—to simple soldiers.

"An old grenadier who had made the campaigns of Italy and Egypt, not hearing his name pronounced, left the ranks and asked for the Legion of Honor. 'What have you done,' said Napoleon, 'to obtain this recompense?' 'It was I, Sire, who, in the desert of Jaffa, in a dreadful heat, offered you a watermelon.' 'I thank you again for it, but that is not worth the Legion of Honor.' The grenadier, who, so far, had been as cold as ice, flew into a paroxysm, and said with great volubility: 'Do you count for nothing seven wounds received at the bridge of Arcole, at Lodi, at Castiglione, at the Pyramids, at Saint Jean d'Acre, at Austerlitz, at Friedland—eleven campaigns in Italy, in Egypt, in Austria, in Prussia, in Poland?' Here the Emperor interrupted him, and, imitating his vivacious language, said: 'Well, well, well! how you scream! Now you come to essential points; you end where you ought to have begun; this is better than your watermelon.'"

By this familiarity, the Emperor made himself adored by his soldiers; "but," says Marbot, "such means ought to be employed only by a chieftain whom many victories have made illustrious; they would hurt and discredit another general."

At the storming of Ratisbon, two small columns of assault had been repulsed and completely destroyed; Marbot took part in the third, and was the first, with Labédoyère, to gain the rampart of the town, in view of the Emperor Napoleon and of the whole army,

who saluted them with an immense acclamation. "It was one of the finest days of my life."

Whoever has gone from Munich to Vienna must remember the fine town and abbey of Mönk, on the Danube. "It was at Mönk," says Marbot, "that I accomplished the feat of which I am the most proud, because the dangers which I had so far incurred had been imposed on me by the execution of orders given by my chiefs, but there I braved death voluntarily to serve my country and my Emperor, and to acquire a little glory." The Danube was very high; it had risen till, at Mönk, it was a league wide. Napoleon, who was dining in the convent with the abbé, Lannes, and the other marshals, sent for Marbot. It was raining; the night was dark; on the other side of the river were seen the lights of the Austrian camp. Lannes said to Marbot: "The Emperor wishes to know if the corps of Gen. Hiller is on the other side or is still on this side. It is necessary that a man of pluck should go over, seize a soldier, and get the truth out of him; I have told the Emperor that you would go." Napoleon added: "Observe that this is not an order which I give you; I only express a desire. The enterprise is perilous, and you will not displease me if you refuse. Reflect a few moments, and tell me frankly your decision."

At the proposition of Lannes Marbot felt himself bathed in cold sweat. He did not hesitate, however; he was proud of having been chosen, out of 200,000 men, for such a mission. "I will go," said he. The Emperor pinched his ear, which was his greatest mark of satisfaction. Lannes said: "There is a brave soldier!" The execution of the project was not easy. Marbot procured a boat, took five soldiers, five boatmen, who were carried away by force, and the syndic of the boatmen of Mönk. The boat reached the other side of the river with difficulty. A soldier was coming down to get water; the soldiers concealed under the branches of willows seized him, and threatened to kill him if he uttered a word. Two other Austrians were seized in the same way; but soon was heard a cry of "Wer da?" No answer. The boat was seen by the Austrian pickets, and put off with as much haste as possible. A tremendous fusillade began; the artillery was directed against the small craft; a single shell would have sunk it. The inundation had covered the river with broken pine-trees, and it was difficult to steer. Marbot landed two leagues away from Mönk, not knowing whether he was among friends or foes. His party was fired upon; he screamed, "Vive l'Empereur!" and found himself among Frenchmen. On his return, he ascertained that Hiller was on the other side of the Danube, and had been able to join Prince Charles. He saw the Emperor, and brought him his three prisoners. "I am well satisfied with you, *Chef d'escadron* Marbot." These words were equivalent to a promotion. He asked Marbot to breakfast, and gave the Legion of Honor to his five grenadiers. He gave a large sum of money to the five boatmen of Mönk.

Two days afterwards the Emperor was before Vienna; twenty-seven days after having left Paris, he was in the capital of Austria. He took for his residence the castle of Schönbrunn, which is two miles from Vienna. Marbot enters into many details of the operations which took place on the Danube on the occupation of the island of Lobau. During the battle between the French army and Archduke Charles at Essling, Marshal Lannes was severely wounded in the legs by a cannon-ball; Larrey, the head surgeon of the army, thought

an amputation necessary. After the operation Napoleon came to see Lannes. "You will live, my friend, you will live," said he to the Marshal, who merely answered: "I hope so, if I can still be useful to France and to your Majesty." Lannes was born in 1769 at Lectoure, in Gascony. His father was a dyer; he helped his father in his trade, and, when the Revolution broke out, all his knowledge consisted in reading, writing, and a little arithmetic. He enlisted in 1791 in the first battalion of the volunteers of Gers, and by the suffrage of his comrades he became a lieutenant. He began to study and spend many of his nights in trying to remedy the defects of his education. He rapidly became a colonel, and when Napoleon made his Italian campaign, he soon recognized Lannes's merit. Lannes followed him to Egypt, and returned with him. He saved the French army at Montebello and thus insured the victory of Marengo. After the death of Lannes, Marbot joined the staff of Masséna, with the grade of *chef d'escadron*; he was created at the same time Chevalier of the Empire, with a stipend of 2,000 francs a year. Soon afterwards occurred the battle of Wagram.

The Memoirs of Marbot in the second half of the second volume assume the tone of ordinary military memoirs. His position allowed him to see more than many, and he cannot resist the temptation of telling all he saw. We must pass a little rapidly over the account of the military operations, and insist more particularly upon the incidents which touch the character of the persons engaged in these Homeric struggles. Of all the marshals of the Empire, Marbot seems to have particularly liked Augereau, and particularly disliked Masséna. At the battle of Wagram, Masséna's corps was at first defeated. "The Marshal, from his carriage, saw the danger which threatened us, and calmly took the necessary dispositions to maintain in good order the three divisions which had not yet been broken into. He had been obliged for that to send so many aides-de-camp to his generals that he had by him only the young lieutenant, Prosper Masséna, his son. He soon found that the soldiers of Boudet's division, pursued by the Austrian cavalry, were being pushed back on these three divisions, and in throwing themselves into their ranks would produce a general rout. To prevent this catastrophe, the Marshal had to order the generals and colonels to send the runaway soldiers to the island of Lobau." The mission was difficult, as the aide-de-camp would have to cut his way through a disordered multitude. Marbot's horse had been half burnt in some cornfields which had taken fire, and could hardly move. The etiquette of battle for the aides-de-camp consisted in taking their places, when they returned to the Marshal, furthest from him. Masséna, who had been carrying an order and was returning, took his place. Nevertheless the Marshal, who should have sent his son first, bade Marbot fulfil the dangerous mission which has just been explained. Masséna was so candid as to tell him, "You understand why I don't send my son, though it is his turn to go. I am afraid they will kill him. You understand?" Marbot understood too well, and started at full gallop towards Boudet's division. Young Masséna felt indignant at his father, and followed Marbot.

Masséna, who was slightly wounded, was obliged to remain in a carriage during the battle of Wagram, and during the combats which followed he had his own postillions. These two men showed great intrepidity. They were for eight days exposed to the greatest

dangers, especially at Wagram, where hundreds of men were killed near their carriage. A ball went through the coat of one of them, another ball killed one of their horses. The whole army admired their bravery, which was of the most voluntary sort, as they were not soldiers. The Emperor said to Masséna: "There are here 300,000 fighting on both sides. Well, would you know who are the bravest? They are your coachman and your postilion, as we are all here to do our duty, while they have no military obligations." The Marshal had a very large fortune: he received 200,000 francs as commander of an army, 200,000 as Duc de Rivoli, 300,000 francs as Prince of Essling. Masséna, however, waited two months without thinking of doing anything for these two men. One evening he was with his staff and announced that he would give to each 400 francs. Marbot imprudently asked, "400 francs a year?" Masséna was furious, and said, "Do you want to ruin me?" He became even more furious when, a few days afterwards, the Emperor, who was very fond of a joke, and who, besides, was extremely generous, maliciously complimented Masséna for having given to each of the two men who had taken him over the battlefields a pension of 400 francs. It is easy to imagine that such incidents did not ingratiate Marbot with Masséna nor Masséna with Marbot; but they remained together, and we shall see Marbot's criticisms assume a more important character when we arrive at the very important affairs of Portugal.

In 1810, Marbot found himself in Paris, and he was married to a Mlle. Desbrières. The winter of 1810 was very brilliant; Napoleon had divorced Josephine and married the Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria. Marbot took part in the festivities of the occasion. The ardor for pleasure of the brilliant officers of Napoleon's army was all the greater because they had the conviction that each spring would bring a new campaign. Marbot accompanied Masséna to Portugal in the spring of 1810, and his account of the Peninsular campaign is full of interest. He left Paris with sombre forebodings, which were only too well justified by the event.

Correspondence.

GOLDWIN SMITH AND THE JEWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The appearance of Goldwin Smith's essay on the "Jewish Question" as the leading article in the leading American review, seems to me at this present time very unfortunate. There is no "Jewish Question" except so far as the madness of a modern Nero, wielding absolute power over more than a hundred million human beings, has made one. Not that other nations than Russia might not possibly be better off if there were fewer Jews among them, or if those there were put under restrictive laws; but all other great nations have committed themselves irrevocably to the principle of religious freedom and equality, and it would be found impracticable to discriminate against the Jews on the ground of race in the way in which the United States discriminate against the Chinese.

Aside from Russia the Jews are indeed oppressed and sometimes persecuted in Morocco and in Rumania; but the Moorish Government of the former country will soon fall under West-European control, when the Jews,

who in language and habits are pretty nearly European, must get the upper hand, and the Rumanian situation is but part of the Russian problem, for the ill-will of the people on the lower Danube is directed mainly against Jews who have been thrust upon them from Russia, not against the old settlers of the "Spanish" ritual, who are generally on the best footing with their Gentile neighbors.

The "question" in Russia has arisen since the mischievous dynamite shell of a Nihilist ended the life of Alexander II, and put the lives of one-fourth of the globe into the keeping of a gloomy, unfeeling monster. The tortures which he inflicts upon his Slavic subjects, as described in the letters of Kennan, have curdled the blood of English and American readers. His Semitic subjects he is pleased to treat in a different way: he gives them the choice between starvation and exile. They flee by thousands and by tens of thousands to Austria, to Turkey, to England, to Italy, to the United States, to the Argentine Republic. In some countries the sudden inroad of large numbers of often penniless exiles must cause much unpleasantness—thus we find that, in East London, tailors and shoemakers complain of the sharp competition made by these new-comers in the labor market; but all this is only a part of the one Russian question, which ought, if possible, to be met in Russia.

Thus far, the whole civilized world has been practically at one in its protest against the cruelties of the Muscovite tyrant. Even the anti-Semitic politicians of Germany and Austria have not justified the horrors perpetrated at Moscow. It was left for the New York Herald to break the monotony of this universal protest, and to distinguish itself by that journalistic enterprise which found, through its St. Petersburg correspondent, that there was really no persecution to speak of. We now meet a first-rate publicist writing in a first-rate review something which, no matter how much he may disclaim the intent, can only be taken as an argument in defence of a stupendous and still progressing crime. Long before this, I have no doubt, a résumé of Goldwin Smith's lucubrations has been cabled to the *Novoe Vremya*, in order that the advisers and tools of the oppressor may find comfort in the concurrence of a British writer and an American magazine. Some have foolishly imagined that Goldwin Smith's pen has been hired with Russian rubles. I believe nothing of the sort. He is simply filled with hatred for those whom he thinks too weak to resist oppression, whether they be Irish rack-rented tenants or Jewish artisans and students in Russia. If Prof. Smith really understood the strength, the toughness, the persistence of the Jewish character, he would feel as much love and admiration for the "chosen people" as he now cherishes hatred and contempt.

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 1, 1891.

THE NEW KENTUCKY CONSTITUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be interesting to your readers to know something of the new Constitution about to be adopted by Kentucky. That it will carry on Monday next is practically assured. The *Courier-Journal*, the very head and front of the opposition, withdrew from the fight some weeks ago. The first material change to note is in the Bill of Rights, section 3, which provides:

"All men, when they form a social compact, are equal; and no grant of exclusive, separate

public emoluments or privileges shall be made to any man or set of men, except in consideration of public services; but no property shall be exempt from taxation except as provided in this Constitution; and every grant of a franchise, privilege, or exemption shall remain subject to revocation, alteration, or amendment."

The italics show so much of this section as is new. The change is made to prevent property from being exempted on the pretence that "public services" are rendered, and to stop the granting of "exclusive privileges" which cannot be revoked, altered, or amended. Our experience in these two directions has been a painful one.

In the legislative department, section 48, the Constitution provides that any bill appropriating money or creating a debt shall, on its final passage, receive the votes of a majority of the members of both houses. Section 62 puts a stop to local and special legislation, which in Kentucky usually consumed six or seven months of the Legislature's time and vast sums of the taxpayers' money.

Probably the change that will interest the lovers of honest elections more than any other thing the Convention has done is the addition to our chapter on Suffrage and Election. Section 154 provides:

"In all elections by persons in a representative capacity, the voting shall be *viva voce* and made a matter of record; but all elections by the people shall be by *secret official ballot*, furnished by public authority to the voters at the polls, and marked by each voter in private at the polls, and then and there deposited. The word 'election' in this section includes the decision of questions submitted to the voters, as well as the choice of officers by them. The General Assembly shall make provision so that persons illiterate, blind, or in any way disabled may have their ballots marked as herein required."

It remains to be seen how effective a law the General Assembly will provide under this section. Happily, the Constitution itself requires that the ballot shall be "official" and furnished by public authority. The General Assembly is required to provide for the registration of the voters of cities and towns having a population of 5,000 or over.

Lotteries are for ever prohibited by sec. 235, which reads:

"Lotteries and gift enterprises are forbidden, and no privileges shall be granted for such purposes, and none shall be exercised, and no schemes for similar purposes shall be allowed. The General Assembly shall enforce this section by proper penalties. All lottery privileges or charters heretofore granted are revoked."

There are other new provisions, some good, others the wisdom of which is doubtful, but space forbids their mention. Those noted above seem to be the most important changes made by the Convention. The question of taxation, always a difficult one, was disposed of by providing that real and personal property should be taxed at the same rate. The General Assembly (sec. 257) may provide that in civil actions, when three-fourths or more of the jury concur, a verdict may be returned; the jury to consist of twelve persons. ***

LOUISVILLE, July 31, 1891.

PROTECTION TO AMERICAN AUTHORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Uncle Sam seems to have mended his drag-net of late, and the fish must be small-fry indeed that now go through its meshes. A learned society of Scotland, in pursuance of its liberal policy, mailed to me fifty author's copies of a paper which had been honored by

admission to its *Transactions*. The bundle came to the local post-office this week opened, and accompanied by a slip giving the package a "commercial value" of twelve dollars, and assessing a duty of 25 per cent. The local collector of customs thinks that I am resisting the just claims of a hard-working Government in delaying payment; but curiosity as to how they discover the commercial value of a paper whose real audience might, I think, be numbered on the fingers of the two hands, has led me to appeal the case. X. Y. Z.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS., Boston, will publish in the fall 'A Calendar of Sonnets,' by the late Helen Jackson, illustrated by E. H. Garrett and Émile Bayard; and 'Last Words,' a final collection of the stories of the late Mrs. J. H. Ewing.

Lee & Shepard announce 'Wood Notes Wild,' notations of bird music by Simeon Pease Cheney; 'The Golden Guess,' essays by John Vance Cheney; 'Gestures and Attitude,' an exposition of the Delsarte theory of expression, by Edward B. Warman; 'A Bundle of French Studies,' by Maria Ellery Mackaye; and 'The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law,' by Harriette R. Shattuck.

Benj. R. Tucker will publish shortly 'Russian Traits and Terrors,' by a number of contributors to the *Fortnightly Review*.

The Student Publishing Co., Hartford, Conn., have in press 'Bibles Within the Bible,' being the text of Genesis and the first twenty chapters of Exodus according to the Revised Version, in varieties of type to exhibit the constituent sources according to the analysis of the best critics, with notes explanatory of the phenomena of redaction. The author is the Rev. B. W. Bacon.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in preparation a series of concise biographies of the men whose systems have marked successive stages in the progress of education, from Aristotle to Dr. Arnold. It will be edited by Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia. Mr. Thomas Davidson will undertake Aristotle; J. G. Fitch, Pestalozzi; J. Courthope Bowen, Froebel; Prof. Butler, Horace Mann. The same firm will issue another volume of 'Children's Stories in English Literature'; and 'The Business of Life,' by the author of 'How to be Happy, though Married.'

A new prospectus of Funk & Wagnalls's 'Standard Dictionary of the English Language' gives a list of the editorial staff, which is not lacking in eminent names, and exhibits some original features which it will certainly be desirable to have in a dictionary, if not in every one. Mr. Teall, whose work on the 'Compounding of English Words' we lately noticed, will be charged with the oversight of this important matter—a complete innovation, we imagine. So is the use of the German double hyphen to indicate compounds, the mode of expressing the pronunciation, etc.

The well-known Danish publishers, Brødrene Salmonsens, announce a new Scandinavian encyclopædia, the first part of which will appear in the spring of 1892 under the title of 'Salmonsens's Store Illustrerede Konversationsleksikon for Norden.' This work will be founded upon the recently completed fourth edition of Meyer's German 'Konversationslexikon,' the use of the 4,000 illustrations to which has been secured. Many of the German articles will be translated, with special reference, however, to Scandinavian interests,

Over a quarter of the contents will be devoted to Denmark and Norway, an amount of reading matter equalling the whole extent of any previous Scandinavian encyclopædia. The chief editorship will fall to Chr. Blangstrup, whose book on Christian VII. and Caroline Mathilde has already been favorably noticed in these columns. Mr. Halvorsen, the editor of the 'Northern Biographical Dictionary,' will have charge of the Norwegian department, and the work of translating from the German will be supervised by L. Stange, who is himself an experienced translator. Among the 150 assistants already announced in the preliminary circular are many of the most prominent littérateurs and scientists, both of Denmark and Norway. The work will be published at intervals of two weeks, the subscription price for each part of three sheets being about 15 cents, or \$3.25 per annum. When completed it will include 18 volumes, containing about 6,000 illustrations, maps, plans, etc. It is intended, furthermore, on the completion of the work, to issue at convenient intervals supplementary volumes, which will serve to keep it up to date. While this encyclopædia, as its title implies, is intended particularly for Scandinavian readers, it cannot fail to be of great value to all familiar with the Danish language and interested in the affairs of the North.

The seventh volume of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.) carries on the work from Maltebrun to Pearson. The freshness of the editing is attested by mention of the new Life of Laurence Oliphant and by the record of Parnell's discomfiture down to his defeats at North Kilkenny and North Sligo, and the striking off of his name from the burgess-roll of Edinburgh. Notable articles are Canon Isaac Taylor's "Names," R. H. Button's "Newman," P. G. Hamerton's "Painting," Prof. A. H. Keane's "New Guinea," and A. Clark's "Oxford." Under "Parliament" is a list of constituencies showing the number of members sent to the House of Commons. As usual, woodcut illustrations abound, and the several States of the Union embraced in this part of the alphabet are mapped in color.

The twenty-seventh volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is occupied with another instalment of the mighty letter H, ending with Hovenden. The longest article (fifteen pages) is upon Hogarth, who, it should be remembered, was instrumental in securing copyright for artistic designs, and who made interesting experiments with wood as a cheaper mode of engraving, but without success, as regards cost. The two plates actually executed "show that Hogarth's bold drawing upon the block, even in its rough knife-cut facsimile, has a vigor which is wanting in the copper." Hobbes is treated of in eight pages by Leslie Stephen, who styles him "a product of the great intellectual movement distinguished by Bacon, Galileo, Kepler, Harvey, and Descartes, and says he "produced a fermentation in English thought not surpassed until the advent of Darwin." The carrier, Thomas Hobson, whose "choice" of the next horse in turn in his stall for his customers gave rise to the proverb, is shown to have been a considerable person and to have been a lasting benefactor to Cambridge. Hobart Pasha, who, from being blockade-runner during our civil war, became the Sultan's naval adviser, began as a gunner's mate in suppressing the slave trade on the South American coast. The strange career of the medium Home is related with all possible credit, and is said to offer a "curious and as yet unsolved problem."

Mr. Giles B. Stebbins's 'Upward Steps of Seventy Years: Autobiographic, Biographic, Historic' (New York: U. S. Book Co.) is valuable as the work of a man of the forties for whom the forties are not yet ended. He still feels in himself all the reformatory impulses of that fermenting period, and a large portion of his narrative consists of very accurate portraits of the men and women with whom he coöperated and whom he met more or less familiarly, especially as a lecturer in the anti-slavery cause. Noticeable is his account of the Northampton Community and some of its leading figures. The latter part of the volume is given up to personal spiritualistic experiences, running through the whole gamut of "manifestations," from the puerile to the permanently mysterious. Mr. Stebbins has a firm belief in "that bourne from whence travellers sometimes return," as he puts it. How a man of his kindly, humanitarian disposition could become the author of 'British Free Trade a Delusion' and the 'American Protectionist's Manual,' and hired editor, for the late E. B. Ward, of a protectionist paper in Washington, passes understanding as much as any of his mediumistic miracles. But he does not dilate excessively on this phase of his activity. He describes his intercourse with the late Henry C. Carey as admirably as that with the free-trader Gerrit Smith at Peterboro. Mr. Stebbins was born in Springfield, Mass., about the year 1817. His parents attended the Unitarian Church, and he recalls George Bancroft "standing before the window in prayer-time, and catching flies on its panes in his total absence of mind." Among other philanthropists intimately portrayed by Mr. Stebbins are Oliver Smith of Northampton and his niece, Sophia, the founder of Smith College.

Mrs. Cynthia Morgan St. John's 'Wordsworth for the Young' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.) is a book of selections which deserves respectful treatment for its aim. This aim is not an introduction to Wordsworth, nor an initiation in poetic taste, but an early subjection of the childish mind to "the calming and spiritualizing influence of the natural world." It is easy to see what order of pieces would be chosen for this purpose, and our main criticism is that the older children (in the three graded divisions) are least well provided for, and suffer most from the compiler's comparative indifference to poetic standards in making excerpts from the most unequal of poets. While judicious parents and teachers would skip much in their reading from these pages, Wordsworthian doggerel is, it must be conceded, of better worth than Mother Goose—to adopt Mrs. St. John's comparison more closely than she does. The illustrations are selected like the verse, and with considerable skill, considering the probable medley at command.

There can be nothing but praise for the purpose of two manuals that meet together on our table—'Elements of Civil Government,' by Alex. L. Peterman (American Book Co.), and 'The American Citizen,' by Charles F. Dole (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). Intended primarily for use in the public schools, they serve as one practical solution of the question of non-religious teaching of morals. Especially is this the case with Mr. Dole's book, which takes a wider range than the other. His sections entitled "Economic Duties" and "Social Duties" are particularly valuable, his sure and clear handling in the chapters on Property and Money being worthy of special commendation. Senator Peterman's book (he is a member of the Kentucky Senate) is more formal, and restricted to the subject of government pure and simple; it is based, he says, upon his experience as a teacher for many

years, and is certainly written with an eye to the technical requirements of the school-room. It is of the happiest omen that such books are now accessible to teachers.

We have on a former occasion praised the still recent work of M. É. Boutmy, Principal of the French School of Political Science, called 'Études de Droit Constitutionnel,' and we are now glad to announce an English translation under the title 'Studies in Constitutional Law: France, England, United States' (Macmillan). It is a translation from the second edition by E. M. Dicey, and is provided with an introduction by Prof. A. V. Dicey of Oxford, who confidently recommends it to the attention of students, and holds it to be a great recommendation that "the essay is written by a foreigner for foreigners." He has added a few notes, signed with his initials, some of them referring to Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.'

Mr. H. Morse Stephens's 'The Story of Portugal' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) can but add to the favorable impression of Mr. Stephens's powers made by his writings on the French Revolution. He disclaims, it is true, having made exhaustive researches for the present work, yet it is much to have thoroughly acquainted himself with the results of the modern historical school in Portugal, and by adopting these to have produced a manual far more trustworthy, at least as respects the early history, than anything heretofore published in English. The method followed is not so episodic as has been the case in some volumes of the "Story of the Nations" series; Mr. Stephens calls himself only a plodding annalist. Yet he observes the proportions and knows where to lay emphasis, and is thus far from giving simply a register of events. A good specimen of his self-sacrifice is where he passes so lightly over the period of French occupation, content to refer the reader to Napier's unrivalled narrative of the Napoleonic wars in the Peninsula. Altogether, the book deserves commendation, and will meet a "long-felt want" more truly than some of its predecessors in the series. We notice that the given name of Herculano, that Niebuhr among Portuguese historians, is spelled in three different ways.

The 'Cantigas' of Alfonso the Wise have lately been published by the Spanish Academy in two folio volumes. Heretofore these poems, written in Galician and of great value to the student of the literature of the Middle Ages, have been accessible only in scattered citations.

From Macmillan & Co. we have received 'The Apostolic Fathers,' a volume begun by the late Bishop Lightfoot, and now completed and edited by J. R. Harmer. In the case of each writing, the Greek text is preceded by a short introduction and followed by an English translation. The same house sends us a third and revised edition, two volumes in one, of Martineau's 'Types of Ethical Theory,' and a second edition of the first volume of Prof. Alfred Marshall's 'Principles of Economics.' The new edition of the 'Principles' differs from the first only in point of detail and in arrangement. The changes are not without importance, but are too numerous to allow us to do more than refer to them.

Dr. Seward Webb has printed an account of a journey to California and Alaska, returning via the Canadian Pacific. An *édition de luxe*, with etchings, is destined for his friends, while a popular edition, with numerous "process" illustrations, has been issued by the Putnams. It does not appear to rise above a chronicle of ordinary experiences on a special train over the usual routes of tourists.

J. B. Bailey writes to the Academy that a

copy of Marat's 'Essay on Gleans' has at last been found and, together with his later medical tract published in London, is soon to be reprinted. The same journal announces that the Chaucer Concordance is getting within sight of publication; work upon it was resumed in 1888, and now Dr. Ewald Flügel of Leipzig undertakes to edit the mass of material.

A new milestone marks the rapid advance of "university extension" in this country, namely, the establishment of a monthly organ of the American Society. Judging by the first number, that for July, *University Extension* is to have a purely missionary tone, though that is inevitable in the beginning of such an enterprise, and may later on give place to something broader.

The Cleveland College for Women, in a recent report, shows a total enrolment of 132 students for the three years of its existence. A permanent site has been secured, and Clark Hall and Mather Cottage will be at once erected. The gifts of Mrs. Jas. F. Clark and Mrs. Samuel Mather not only cover this expense, but also aggregate \$100,000 as the nucleus of an endowment fund. What is noteworthy about this institution is, that it appears to be symptomatic of a reaction against the coeducational practice of the West. It competes, one may say, not only with the neighboring Oberlin, but with the University of Michigan and with Cornell University.

Prof. W. W. Goodwin's masterly Phi Beta Kappa address on "The Present and Future of Harvard College" has been printed in a neat form by Ginn & Co., Boston. Every one who heard it should be glad to read it, and we especially commend it both to those who still have lingering doubts about the elective system, and to the candid friends of the three-years' course, with whom, we are free to say, we are in sympathy, while holding our judgment in suspense.

The full-length portrait of Phillips Brooks in his library is the chief attraction of *Sun and Shade* for August (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.).

A geological excursion on a large scale is planned for the wind-up of the International Geological Congress which meets in Washington, August 26 to September 2. The design is mainly to give European geologists an opportunity to examine personally the most important geological phenomena of the United States. Leaving Washington on Sept. 3, a train of completely equipped Pullman cars will start on a journey of more than 6,000 miles, in the course of which the Appalachian range will be crossed, the glacial phenomena observed in northern Minnesota, and the Yellowstone Park, and the Rocky Mountains in Montana and Colorado successively visited, the expedition ending in New York, Sept. 26. Those desiring to take part in it should write as early as possible to S. F. Emmons, Secretary, Washington. Two hundred and sixty-five dollars will cover all the necessary expenses of the trip.

—Part VI. of the English Philological Society's Dictionary, running from *Clo-* to *Con-*signer, may now be expected in the course of a few days. It embraces 5,215 Main Words, 708 Special Combinations calling for separate explanation, and 985 Subordinate Words and Forms; the total amounting to 6,908. In Part VII. we are to have the rest of C, with the first portion of D. The importance of words in C is patent from the fact that, as Dr. Murray observes, this letter is one of three which, taken together, begin nearly a third of all English vocables. As showing the extensive scale of the Dictionary, it may be mentioned

that no fewer than twenty three columns of it are devoted to the verb *Come*; no other word having yet demanded so large a space for treatment. The preparation of a Supplement to the Dictionary, which cannot fail to be instructive, is now announced in these words:

"In no earlier part of the Vocabulary have the ordinary Dictionaries been found so deficient, or so affected with error; the great number of bogus words, originating in mistakes of many kinds and of many authors, from the early days of English lexicography downward, which have been uncritically copied by one compiler after another, until, in the most recent compilation, they form a portentous number, has decided us to prepare a *List of Spurious Words* found in the Dictionaries, to be given at the end of the work, to which list such *verba nihili* are relegated from the text."

The beginning of Vol. III. of the same Dictionary, which has just left the press, has for its editor a very accomplished scholar, Mr. Henry Bradley, President of the Philological Society. The First Part of this volume, containing 344 pages, extends from *E* to *Every*. It deals with 6,842 Main Words, 1,565 Subordinate Words, and 786 Special Combinations explained under the Main Words, constituting a total of 9,193. One noteworthy feature of these words, we are told, is the extremely small proportion of them found to be natively English; while another is the unusual abundance, among them, of technicalities called into existence by the development of science in recent years. We can here only add, that, the more searching the scrutiny of the manner in which Mr. Bradley has discharged his editorial functions, the more convincingly, we apprehend, it will appear that Dr. Murray is most fortunate in having him as a coadjutor. It is a very considerable stride that has lately been taken by their herculean undertaking.

—We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the concluding parts of the first annual volume in extension of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon.' The most cursory examination discovers the great value and convenience of this review of the year 1890. In the first place, we have an article on each of the leading Powers, narrating its history for the twelvemonth, with a summary of its literary productions. In the case of the United States, the population census of 1890 is recorded, and a separate article of four pages is devoted to the McKinley Bill and its effect on Europe, and another to North American Literature 1885-1890, by Karl Knortz. Then, still observing the general headings, we have the several congresses of the year, scientific and other; the art exhibitions of Germany; geographical discovery and bibliography; historical literature, 1888-1890, pedagogic, 1880-1890, and theological; recent historical works evoked by the great wars since Sadowa; works illustrating the history of civilization, etc. The problem of reform of the high schools, in which the Emperor has interested himself with the oppressive officiousness of a saviour of society; the new industrial courts for the settlement of disputes between laborer and capitalist; taxation, another German concern; German trade, the German climate, are further topics fully treated. The movement of prices 1870-90 furnishes a notable article, and of interest is the description of prehistoric and mediæval trade-routes in Germany. The ever-present anticipation of war is ministered to by articles on the military employment of carrier-pigeons and the use of bicycles in the army, and by a map of the fortified frontiers of Germany touching France and Russia. Electricity obtains a large space, and there is a table under Telephone which shows that Sweden is third of

the European countries in its use of this mode of communication; following Great Britain and Germany. The gripe is discussed by itself; there are tables and maps showing the spread of diseases, and tinted maps of France, Germany, and Italy to exhibit relative local criminality (or frequency of arrests). A curious list indicates by title or artist the most remarkable paintings since Cimabue. Characteristic are entries of great personages, like Machiavelli and Napoleon, in order to refer the reader to the latest works concerning them, and this is done in the case of Mr. Adams's 'Life of R. H. Dana.' So Lecky's name is introduced to note the conclusion of his 'History of England.' A great many American biographies are newly inserted, from Buffalo, Bill to Bellamy, T. B. Reed, Sitting Bull, J. Keppler, Thomas Evans, D. G. Brinton, W. T. Harris, George Kennan, etc. The classified table of contents reveals the names of some of the contributors to this scrupulously edited and printed volume; and the necrology is brought down to May, 1891. Altogether, this annual will take a high rank in its class.

—Mr. W. H. Venable brings together an interesting collection of historical and biographical sketches in his 'Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.). After an introductory chapter on some Early Travellers and Annalists, he gives us, successively, chapters on the Pioneer Press, Early Periodical Literature, Libraries, and Backwoods Colleges, and then goes on with accounts of pulpit and political orators, poets, and story-writers, winding up with eight biographical portraits, the best known of the subjects being George D. Prentice and Alice Cary. The settlement of the Ohio Valley was effected at a time when cohesion seemed to be going utterly out of almost all forms of social organization, and the chaos resulting from the extreme individualism of the period is well indicated in Mr. Venable's pages. New sects sprang up like mushrooms, and the range was from Unitarianism down to the followers of Dilks, "the Leatherwood God, who, in 1828, inaugurated his system by a loud snort and the cry of the single word, 'Salvation.'" The ferment of ideas was revealed in the starting of endless sectarian schools, and also, perhaps even more notably, in the foundation of literary and philosophical periodicals. Mr. Venable gives a list of ninety-six of these, established between 1803 and 1860, with the warning that it is but "partial." They were nearly all ephemeral, naturally, but have their significance, and can show tangible results in having helped to train the pens of Harriet Beecher Stowe, James Freeman Clarke, W. D. Howells, M. D. Conway, and others. The book has much that is desultory and trivial, but withal yields the flavor which a studious and discreet attempt to preserve local traditions must always possess.

—The Superintendent of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey publishes in Bulletin No. 23 the secular variation and annual change of the magnetic force at stations occupied by the U. S. Eclipse Expedition to West Africa, 1889-90, in charge of Prof. David P. Todd. Eight of these were island stations in the North and South Atlantic—Fayal, San Vicente, two at St. Helena, two at Ascension Island, Barbados, and Bermuda. Six stations are on the African coast—Sierra Leone, Elmina (Gold Coast), St. Paul de Loanda, Cabiri (Angola interior), and two at Cape Town. The observer was Mr. E. D. Preston, and his work

is made directly available for the use of the navigator and others, by the comparison and discussion of it in connection with the accumulated mass of older observations. Isomagnetic curves of a recent epoch are thus constructed, and much light is thrown on the character and extent of the changes which terrestrial magnetism is undergoing at present over a very wide geographic area. If we compare the mathematical expressions for the secular variation in declination at these stations of the Expedition with those situated on our Atlantic coast, the greatly enlarged secular motion, both in range and in period, becomes at once conspicuous. The average range for our coast stations is about twice 3°, whereas for the Atlantic islands generally, Rio de Janeiro, and Cape Town, it is twice 13°.5, or four and a half times as great. The period of a complete angular swing for the Atlantic coast stations is 267 years; whereas for the islands of the Atlantic, and coast stations in South America and West Africa, it is just double the length, or 534 years. This very significant change of character, as depending upon geographic position, is, like the entire phenomena of the secular motion, difficult of explanation; possibly there are interference phenomena due to more than a single cause. At Barbados, the Cape Verdes, Ascension, Saint Helena, and Cape Town there has been a systematic decrease, between the latest dates, both in the horizontal component and in the total magnetic force.

TAINÉ'S MODERN FRANCE.

Le Régime Moderne. Tome I. [Les Origines de la France Contemporaine.] Par H. Taine, de l'Académie Française. Paris, 1891.

The Modern Régime. By H. A. Taine. Translated by John Durand. Vol. I. Henry Holt & Co.

TAINÉ'S last volume contains, as does everything he has written, much interesting and important matter. His brilliant sketch of Napoleon's character might have been expected to interest Englishmen. His elaborate criticism and attack on the French administrative system is full of novelty for any one who is not a Frenchman. But, for all this, his 'Régime Moderne' has, in England at least, fallen flat. It has not aroused as much attention as either his 'Ancien Régime' or his 'Jacobin Conquest.' The reason for this, though not obvious, may be discovered by the use of a little thought. The 'Régime Moderne' displays the weak sides of Taine's genius. In his former volumes these defects were masked by the inherent interest of the facts which he laid before his readers. In his last volume the faults of our author are patent. He is too considerable a writer to need flattery. His sterling merits will always be recognized by intelligent readers; and now that a good opportunity for fair criticism has arisen, it is worth while to examine with some care the limits or deficiencies of an eminent man of letters.

Taine is great as a collector of facts, but he is neither an historian of the first class nor an original or profound thinker. That he cannot rank high as an historian appears from an examination either of his whole five volumes or of his chapter on Napoleon. He lacks that primary characteristic of a great historian, the capacity for looking at his subject as a whole. From Taine's pages you may learn an infinity of details about the old noblesse, about the Girondists, about the Jacobins, about French Constitution-makers, and the like. But no study, however careful, will

enable a student to collect from Taine a picture of the *ancien régime*, a history of the Girondists or of the Jacobins, a view of the progressive growth (or, if you prefer, of the systematic misgrowth) of French constitutionalism. It would in many respects be very unfair to the writer of 'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine' if we placed him merely on a level with Duvergier de Hauranne, whose 'Gouvernement Parlementaire en France' may be described as the Whig view of French parliamentary government. But Duvergier de Hauranne does give his readers a real insight into the ideas which determined the course in France of the battle, hardly yet ended, for the establishment of parliamentary government. Taine does nothing of the kind. He tells us of the evils of the *ancien régime*, and impresses upon us the weakness of the Girondists; he makes us recognize the tyranny, the savagery, and the incapacity of the Jacobins who ruled France both before and (what Englishmen forget) after the fall of Robespierre. But he explains nothing, because he looks at nothing as a whole. Events at Paris are, throughout the Revolution, governed by events on or outside the frontier of France. Suspicions—as we now know, justifiable suspicions—of the treachery of the court weakened the hands of all men who wished to rally round the throne and resist the brutality of the Revolution. But Taine's criticism omits all notice of foreign affairs, and passes over or ignores the impossibility, felt by every man, whatever his politics, of trusting the Bourbons. Even his account of the Reign of Terror, full as it is of impressiveness and instruction, is entirely deficient in unity. Two examples of this may suffice. A careful examination of Taine's pages has not enabled us to discover anything like a general estimate of the numbers of the victims who, in his opinion, perished on the scaffold or by lawless violence. They might, as far as his statements go, be numbered by thousands or by tens of thousands. He utterly omits, again, to state, what we believe is pretty well ascertained, that the towns or districts where executions took place were few. A student of Taine might well suppose that the horrors which disgraced Paris, Nantes, Bordeaux, or Lyons were repeated in every part of the country.

Let us turn from Taine's way of looking at French revolutionary history to his picture of Napoleon. On no part of his work has our author, we may be sure, bestowed more pains than on the chapter devoted to Bonaparte. He has brought to bear upon it all his skill as an historical portrait-painter, all his infinite laboriousness in the collection of characteristic details; but he repeats, in his attempt to analyze or describe character, exactly the faults which are fatal to his description either of eras or of institutions. Taine tells us an infinity of anecdotes about Napoleon. He insists, and no doubt with truth, on the importance of Bonaparte's Corsican descent. He shows the hero to us as a sort of Corsican savage, who had inherited from his Italian ancestors all the policy or cunning, the boldness or the recklessness, of an Italian of the Renaissance. But even the generalization that Napoleon was in fact a great *condottiere*, the survivor of an earlier age—which, we confess, is a rhetorical idea that does not seem to lead one very far in the search after truth—is concealed, and, so to speak, overpowered, by the crowd of anecdotes with which Taine crams his pages. We learn a great number of facts about Bonaparte's indifference or insensibility to political, or indeed to any kind of

morality; we are shown his marvellous power of taming ruffians such as Augereau or Vandamme; we are told about his impatience, his breaking of furniture when in a passion, the blows he gives his valets, or the kick in the stomach with which, on one occasion at least, he silenced the opposition of a colleague. We learn a great deal about the condition of his body, and a great deal also about the powers of his intellect, about his passion for details and his hatred of abstractions, the coolness of his understanding overbalanced (as Taine considers) by the excess of his imagination. All these and a hundred other things about Napoleon (such, for example, as the irregularity and the vigor of his literary style, the rapidity of his dictation, and the illegibility of his handwriting) are to be learned from Taine's pages. But do we gain any picture of the man, any real idea or explanation of Napoleon's genius?

The question can be answered only with the most emphatic negative. Taine can pile together details out of which some one may in the future construct a whole; but he can no more draw a portrait or analyze a character than he can paint a state of society or trace the evolution either of institutions or of ideas. His passion for detail prevents him from affording real information with regard to large questions even when the inquiries are of a kind which might be answered by research. The Code Napoléon, for instance, must, like every other great work, have a history. How far is it really the creation of the man whose name it bears? No one but a child supposes that the Code was written by Napoleon; but it is a fair, and in estimating his character a most important, inquiry. What was the part which he bore in the conception or the execution of the work which will insure his name a life as long as that of French law, and very possibly far longer? On this point Taine tells us next to nothing. We would gladly have spared anecdotes illustrative of Bonaparte's insolence or passion if their sacrifice had made room for a history of the Code.

Taine is not an original or a profound thinker. As long as he dealt with the *ancien régime* he followed the guidance of an original and subtle teacher. All that is speculative in Taine's pages on that subject is, whether consciously or not, drawn from Tocqueville. No doubt Taine's information is far wider and better than that possessed by his predecessor. Tocqueville died while his work was incomplete, and the last thirty years have opened mines of information about Revolutionary history and the condition of sentiment at the outbreak of the Revolution which were not open to Tocqueville, and have been worked with most creditable diligence and energy by Taine. But we find it impossible to perceive that, in the way of thought, the disciple has ever got a step beyond his master. In one respect at least Tocqueville saw a good deal more deeply into the truth of things than Taine. Tocqueville perceived that, as a matter of fact, the *ancien régime* was detested by all who came under it, and therefore inferred that it was detestable. Taine, with Tocqueville's writings before his eyes, and with hundreds of additional facts confirmatory of Tocqueville's conclusions, never grasps the meaning of the facts which he records. His view of things is detached, wavering, and incoherent. His 'Ancien Régime' shows us a society falling to pieces from inherent faults; his 'France Moderne' implies, though it does not distinctly state, that modern French institutions have suffered irreparably by not being built on the foundations of the *ancien régime*.

Let us take two points as tests—they are simple and obvious ones—of Taine's capacity as a thinker. The first is the relation of Napoleon to the institutions of modern France. Napoleon, argues Taine, is the architect of France as it now exists; if we want to understand the work, we must examine the character of the workman. This is the plea under cover of which he introduces into his work an immense lot of more or less interesting anecdote or gossip about Napoleon. No plea was ever more specious or more unsound. It is only in a very modified sense true that any man, however powerful, can be called the architect of a country's institutions. Modern France, with all its apparent unlikeness to the *ancien régime*, is, in many points, the development of the social condition which preceded the Revolution. On this matter Tocqueville is a surer guide than Taine, and French public law betrays, even to a very superficial student, the influence of ideas at least as old as Louis XIV., and probably much older. But grant, for the sake of argument, that French society is a fabric built up by Napoleon. To know the genius of the architect is no doubt in this case of importance. Still, it is only with his views as a builder that we are concerned. We are not concerned with the pettinesses or irregularities of his private life. Napoleon's work is partially explained by his ideas of government; it receives no explanation at all from stories of Napoleon breaking chairs when he was angry, or of his suddenly interrupting a dinner to indulge in other pleasures than those of the table. Let us accept Taine's analogy: a student of St. Paul's may gain something from knowing the architectural theories of Wren, but an intelligent student of architecture would never care to know whether Wren habitually went to bed drunk or sober.

Our second point is the cut-and-dried theory which Taine applies as a criterion for testing the merits and demerits of the *régime moderne*. He takes a theory of ultra-individualism as if it were an established political axiom: he refers to Macaulay's essay, Gladstone on Church and State, and to Spencer's 'Man versus the State,' as works containing doctrine which is beyond question. Now, against Macaulay's brilliant essay as an incisive criticism on an unsound theory we have not a word to utter; but it were simply ridiculous to suppose either that Macaulay meant it as a complete statement of the relation between the individual and the State, or that it can be treated as anything like a complete solution of a question the answer to which is filled both with speculative and with practical difficulties. We are quite aware that Mr. Herbert Spencer has disciples who believe that their teacher has solved problems which have perplexed philosophers and statesmen. All that need here be said is, that the validity of Mr. Spencer's theories is a matter, to say the very least, open to discussion. It is difficult to believe that any thinker, not the sworn adherent of a school—which we find it difficult to believe is Taine's position—can seriously believe that the institutions of France can be fairly tested by their consonance with or dissonance from Spencerian theories, or that dicta as to the relation between the State and individuals can in any case go very far in helping us towards an answer to the most difficult of inquiries, namely, how much France has gained or lost by the change from the *ancien régime* to the modern condition of society.

Our critique of Taine will seem to many of our readers unjust. We admit that it is one-sided, for the object of this article is not to

weigh M. Taine's merits as a collector of facts—which are very great—against his defects as an historian and a thinker, which, to our mind, are not inconsiderable, and then on a fair balance strike an estimate of his genius; but to point out what are the limits of his powers. Such an attempt must of necessity seem unfair because it is, as we have admitted, of necessity one-sided. In articles on the earlier parts of Taine's great work we have, we think, dealt fairly with its merits. His last volume is not his best; as he approaches present times the difficulty of his work increases. Of this he is well aware. "L'entreprise est hasardeuse, plus malaisée que les deux précédentes." These are his own words; none could more happily express the great, we had almost said insuperable, difficulty of his position. Whether in any case the idea of writing an historical criticism which was neither a complete history nor a complete critique of the development of France since the Revolution was a happy one, is open to doubt. That the perfectly satisfactory performance of the task Taine has undertaken requires on the part of the man who is to achieve it the highest qualities both of an historian and of a philosopher, is certain. That Taine has sometimes not risen intellectually to the height of the enterprise he has undertaken affords ground for criticism, but hardly for censure. His last volume, whatever its defects, abounds in interesting information. All that the severest critic can say is, that the industrious collection of interesting facts does not of itself suffice either for the creation of historical portraits or for the development of the philosophy of history.

MORE NOVELS.

The Beverleys. By Mary Abbott. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Boris Lensky. From the German of Ossip Schubin. Translated by Elise L. Lathrop. New York: Worthington Co.

Flute and Violin, and Other Kentucky Tales. By James Lane Allen. Harper & Bros.

Sidney. By Margaret Deland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Stories Told at Twilight. By Louise Chandler Moulton. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Brampton Sketches. By Mary B. Clafin. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

A Book o' Nine Tales. By Arlo Bates. Roberts Brothers.

Balaam and His Master, and Other Sketches and Stories. By Joel Chandler Harris. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Against Heavy Odds. By Hjalmar Bjorth Boyesen. Charles Scribner's Sons.

To have read 'Alexia' is to feel a kindly predisposition towards the successor of that charming little book. 'The Beverleys' has followed it, and it is perhaps unreasonable to be disappointed at missing in a novel the wild-rose perfume of the story. It is a novel clever in form and style, and in its portraits from Calcutta society. The moods and fascinations of the wild Irish girl and the labyrinths of her naughty heart are prettily described; there are pungent observations on men, women, and manners a plenty—what more would one have? What, indeed, unless something more of coherence in the plan; something less of disagreeable than one finds in a father's playing rival to his son, to the point of intercepting his letters; something less of shiftiness in the point of attack

upon the reader's interest, and—since one always wishes to approve of the Queen of Hearts—a little less inducement, here and there, to side with her detractors.

'Boris Lensky' is the story of a Russian violinist whose art and person were so steeped in *diablerie* that his pathway was strewn with the wrecks of his lady victims. One of them his son would later have liked to marry, but she never succeeds in loving a second time, so that the son is reduced to loving her "undesirably, as one does a saint or the dead." The daughter of the violin-player has a yet sadder fate in being betrayed by an Austrian Count. The one who could not love both father and son induces the Count to marry the young girl he has wronged, and every one appears quite satisfied—even the father, who, having fallen into deep musical degeneration, appears before the public in a swan-like burst of more than his original power, and dies. If the story was intended to be a musical story, more music would have been in order; if a German 'Anna Karénina,' more power was needed throughout. There is, indeed, a certain force in the story of the young girl who slips through paths of simple unconventionality down to her doom, and, as well, in those pages where she plans her own death. The rest is an attempt at strength, not strong, and one asks why all this mud for nothing? The book is very poorly translated, and the illustrations are both weak in themselves and utterly out of place in a society novel of the calibre of this one.

It is with something akin to a sigh, nowadays, that one opens a new volume of tales of any section of our country, feeling that every State has bubbled with historians, and that every hue of "local color" has been offered us to admire, till the senses are weary. But Mr. James Lane Allen's book of Kentucky stories shows that any such jaded criticism is all wrong; that there was an imaginative height and a poetic depth to be touched which no previous hand had reached in this class of historic fiction, and which, indeed, puts these stories beyond the limits of local literature—as far as 'Zenobia' is beyond being a mere chronicle of Brook Farm. To read them, particularly the one called "Posthumous Fame," is to think of Hawthorne, and to recognize a poet spirit in this writer, whose occasional flights into the tropics of language do not prevent his being a rare teller of rare stories.

It seems to be Mrs. Deland's literary mission to create a highly unusual religious puzzle, and worry a way through it with a cleverness in pen-work and a fineness of observation that might better be put to better use. Mortimer Lee's conviction that because death is, marriage should not be, occasions his daughter Sidney a great deal of sorrow, and himself still more when she elects to marry at all hazards. It is quite impossible to infuse any great amount of reality into this moral tangle, and consequently the solution has little effect upon the sympathies. It may therefore be called an unsuccessful novel, so far as the main issue is concerned, albeit, as in 'John Ward,' there is some able side-work furnished.

We have not discovered any particular harm in Mrs. Moulton's stories for girls, except that it seems hardly worth while to advise them to nurse scarlet-fever and typhoid cases among their friends on the chance of working faith cures. We might, further, perhaps complain of a sense of monotony in the repeated appearance of the rich young girl who makes friends with the poor young girl in the opposite window, and who gives her first flowers, then drawing lessons. This young person is saved

from being too angelic by touches like this: "Her hair . . . was like a halo about her forehead—a fine, fluffy, radiant halo, which meant hairpins over night, to be sure, but was none the less beautiful." This note of the human hairpin is exquisitely real, and should make fully half the world kin. The stories in other respects recall yet another line of Shakspeare: "Oh! so soft, oh! so sweet!" are they.

'Brampton Sketches' tell of New England life in a village of the interior, eighty years ago, which has, as their author claims, a flavor quite distinct from the coast life of the same period. The concerns are more of indoors and of the intimately domestic—not of women who sadly await their fishermen from the hungry sea, but of men who meekly stand from under when their wives are making "sass." Gossip is lighter, views of life less sombre, pleasures more frequent, the horizon gayer, but more narrow. Readers of 'Agnes Surriage' will be interested in this closer view of the village where the fair Agnes was enthroned by her baronet, and in the gentle drolleries of the villagers, of the minister in particular. The art is photography, pure and simple, but the modest preface has already disclaimed any higher flight, and all that it promises is tastefully fulfilled.

Mr. Bates's little volume of stories ranges for subjects from hypnotism to the most beruffled young girls of the period. On the whole, we think his deepest ventures are his best, and that his psychic-research stories are more cleverly done than his society pictures. A delicate brightness marks them all, a refined inventiveness, and an expert style. We venture meekly to suggest that a proof-reader who should not permit a ride in New York in a "Fifth Avenue car on the elevated road," would contribute to the local color.

Mr. Harris's negroes are next in vitality to Nature's, and it is only with hers that it could occur to the critic to compare his. The dialect brings the very break of their voices to the reader's ear, and no one else has put such a detaining finger on their phrases. The present stories are mainly of war and reconstruction times, and, whether of blacks or whites, are penetrated with the spirit of those terrible days as few Southern stories are, the more because of the humor that plays around the horrors like a child among graves.

In 'Against Heavy Odds' Prof. Boyesen has made a felicitous return to Norse shores, and given an entertaining boy's story of a remarkable invention in harpoon-guns by which his youthful hero reconstructs whale-fishing and redeems his town, yes, even his country. That it reads something like a fairy story of the machine-shop, and that young Ingomar figures both as a Siegfried to whom Nature yields her secrets, and as a Conqueror before whom baronets and mobs alike bow down, may affect the probability of the story, but, for boy readers certainly, not its interest.

Early Days Recalled. By Janet Ross. London: Chapman & Hall. 1891.

THIS is an agreeable light volume of reminiscences, which, without adding much to the anecdotes of either literature or society, succeeds in giving the pleasantest impression of the social life of a distinguished group, and some aspects of private character in individuals which one is glad to get even a glimpse of. The author is the daughter of Sir Alexander and Lady Duff Gordon, and on her mother's side the grandchild of Mr. John Austin and his remarkable wife, Mrs. Austin,

the friend of Carlyle and many other celebrated men. In her parents' town house and in their suburban place, nicknamed "The Gordon Arms," the child saw much of the best society, and was herself enough of a favorite to have many pretty things to tell of the attentions of great men to her small self. Her opportunities may be judged by a list of the guests whom she herself invited as her friends to one of her birthday parties—certainly, as she says, a remarkable company to gather at a child's summons; for in it were numbered Mrs. Norton, Lord Lansdowne, Tom Taylor, C. J. Bayley, Richard Doyle, and Thackeray. On this occasion Thackeray brought her an oyster for a present, and told her it was like cabinet pudding. She was bright enough to turn the tables by liking it and asking for more. He was a friend of the house, as was Dickens also, and often came in to dinner, sending a warning in verse. To this habit we owe the lines—"A nice leg of mutton, my Lucie"—"Lucie" being the name by which Lady Duff Gordon was called by her intimates. Carlyle was also a visitor, the only one whom the child cordially disliked. One day, when her mother was talking of German literature and overbore Carlyle with her animation, he lost his temper and burst out, "You're just a windbag, Lucie, you're just a windbag," on which the child, who had been listening with all her ears and was shocked by what she thought rudeness, interrupted the two, saying, "My papa always says men should be civil to women." Of course she was scolded for her pertness, but Carlyle only said goodhumoredly, "That child of yours has an eye for an inference, Lucie."

She was very fond of going with her father and mother to Rogers's Sunday morning breakfasts. He liked to have her brought in at dessert, and called her his "baby-love," and he kept a bunch of grapes for her, which she ate seated on a chair and two sofa cushions by his side. The highest praise she could think of for a grand Twelfth-Night party at Lionel de Rothschild's was, "It is almost as nice as Mr. Rogers's breakfasts." One day he puzzled her by saying, "Prose you will certainly write well—it's in your blood." Another time, seeing her stare into vacancy, he patted her on the head and asked what she was thinking about. "Which is the most beautiful, mamma or Aunt Carry?" I answered. "Ah, baby-love, that would puzzle older heads than yours," said he, chuckling. (Mrs. Norton was "Aunt Carry.") She compliments Macaulay on his kindness to children. When she learned he was in the house, she would go and climb on his knee and say, "Now talk!" But these anecdotes, simple as they are and pleasant to linger over, are far from illustrating the whole little volume.

Of the more important characters of the time who come in for mention, and always in a most familiar and natural way, the most notable are Kinglake and Layard, John and Charles Austin, Barthélemy St. Hilaire, Guizot, Cousin, De Lesseps, Sir George C. Lewis, Eliot Warburton, Sir Francis B. Head, Lord Clanricarde, Lord Lansdowne, and some of the French royal family. The reminiscence of most of these is very slight, but it is put in the way of conversation, and entertains the reader more than memoirs of a perhaps more valuable sort. The passages about Kinglake and Layard are especially pleasing. The latter first appears on the scene with Lord Somers, who calls up to the young lady sitting in the bough of a mulberry tree on the lawn: "Come down, Janet, directly; here is the man who dug up those big beasts you saw in the

museum, and his name is Mr. Bull." Layard consequently signs his letters with this nickname, by which he was for many years called by his young and old friends. There is a good story of Lady Duff Gordon's seeing Kinglake come into the back drawing-room as she and her daughter were playing with a pet mouse; she was sure she saw him, spoke, and had the room searched, but he was, in fact, off on his travels. The hour and minute were written down, but Kinglake had no adventure to tell of it when he came back. "Ah, Eothen," we often said, "you spoiled such a good ghost story by coming back with your full complement of arms and legs."

An anecdote of Mr. Nassau Senior will serve as an example of the conversational tone of these reminiscences, and of the sort of thing to be found in them, like plums. Mr. Senior was very indifferent to music, and once at Bowood "Tommy Moore" was induced to sing to a large party. "All prepared to listen to the charming performance save Mr. Senior, who went and sat down at a small table, and began to write with a quill pen on Lord Lansdowne's very ribbed paper. He was compiling an article on statistics, or something of that sort. Moore began, but his singing was rendered impossible by the persistent scratch, scratch, and he looked round to see who caused the odious noise. Mr. Senior raised his head and said innocently: 'Oh, you don't disturb me, I assure you; pray go on—I rather like it'—which caused an outburst of laughter absolutely puzzling to the unconscious statistician." Apropos of this the author relates how Vivier's "inimitable performances" came to an end in London because at the first one Lord Houghton blew his nose—"a war-trumpet, as friends will remember." Vivier threw up all his engagements at once. "Ah," he would say, "les Anglais ont des nez terribles; cela vous fait l'effet du jugement dernier."

But we must bring our citations to an end; only it should be added that the author is a keen lover of horses and riding, and has a good deal to tell of her hunting and racing, and always writes of this topic with zest. She married and went to Egypt, and with recollections of her life there the volume comes to an end too soon. There is nothing very important in the story, but it is extremely entertaining to such as care for pleasant personal talk about very amiable and bright people, or merely the gossip of celebrated names. There is, too, a certain feminine charm in the easy-flowing style, a sense of womanly beauty and brilliancy throughout, which give a spirit to the whole.

The Flowers of Japan and the Art of Floral Arrangement. By Josiah Conder, F.R.I. B.A., Architect to the Imperial Japanese Government. With illustrations by Japanese artists. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; London: Sampson Low & Co. 4to. 1891.

FOR four hundred years Japan, foremost of nations in the development of the principles of courtesy and social formality, practised assiduously three arts which, with one exception in recent times, have not had their counterpart in the West. The art of tea-drinking (standing for the broader art of social intercourse), the art of gardening, and that of flower arrangement first received systematic development at the same epoch and in union with one another. As painting was in its origin mere decoration, so flower arrangement and gardening were regarded originally as worthy of special attention because of the part they played in embellishing and setting

off the tea ceremony, which was to Japanese feudal society what the *levée* and the *salon* were to the France of the last two centuries. The tea ceremony has gradually come to be the accomplishment of a few antiquaries only; but the arrangement of flowers is an art which still preserves its vitality undiminished.

The reason is that it has its roots in the peculiar æsthetic qualities of the nation. It is a trite remark that Japanese pictorial art is essentially linear. The same quality finds a particularly suitable expression and a most congenial field in that grouping of flowers, branches, and leaves which concerns the characteristic art under notice. Its fundamental principles of contour, direction, and proportion receive merely a broader and freer exemplification in the kindred art of gardening. Mixed with the artistic aspect of these rules is the symbolism which insists on attributing a moral significance to certain elements and the various modes of disposing them. Half-way between these moral and artistic considerations stand others which require the ways of Nature to be studied and observed in all artificial treatment of natural objects. The symbolism we of the West may reject, but the canon which requires that Nature shall never be violated and shall, if possible, always be represented or called to mind, is a fundamental principle which will always make the art a living one. This and the general æsthetic principle of variety in unity, without symmetry, are the great gifts of Japan to us in this department, and it is now made possible for us to study the lesson to good purpose.

For Mr. Conder it is a chosen field. In 1886 the Asiatic Society of Japan printed his 'Art of Landscape Gardening in Japan,' and in 1889 his 'Theory of Japanese Flower Arrangements'; and the book now before us is but an adaptation of the latter essay to the needs of foreign readers. He has shown good judgment in the rearrangement of topics, and in eliminating and enlarging where it was necessary for readers not resident in Japan. The chief addition consists of a general preface on the flowers of Japan, the customs and anecdotes connected with them, and the famous places for viewing them. Fifty-four full-page plates and twenty-six smaller cuts make it as easy as anything short of ocular demonstration could do for the learner to acquire practical skill in the art.

As to the art itself, we wish that there were space enough to set forth the attractions which it ought to offer to lovers of beautiful homes. It ought to become not merely a fashionable fad, but a recognized factor in ordinary domestic adornment. It is perfectly adaptable to our own flowers and our own rooms, for the room plays no small part in the ensemble. Everything bearing on the general effect must be considered—direction and proportion, first of all, then season, color, vessel, position in the room, and many other subordinate matters. The wonderful variety of vases and wicker vessels described by Mr. Conder would alone make a notable addition to our domestic furniture and decoration; and there is little which could not be easily reproduced and adapted. The influence which would be exercised towards simplicity, directness, carefulness, love of small things, interest in the ordinary and unpretentious, and against profusion, extravagance, ambition to rival others, exaltation of the rare and unattainable, would be not the least benefit that might result. It is a pity that Mr. Conder could not have embodied in the same volume the essentials of his essay on Japanese gardening, for it is probable that

they would have found a quicker acceptance and trial, and would appeal to us more effectively than the floral art. To see a Japanese garden is to love it. As a part of the home, it has a much closer relation to the householder than our type can possibly have. But until we learn as a people to make more of Nature and her ways, to delight, as the Japanese do, in moulding miniature gardens in earthen dishes, to buy inch-high trees for playthings, to spend our holidays only where the finest blossoms are to be found, to give up our side-walks three times a month to flower markets, to front our homes upon quiet gardens instead of on noisy streets, and to care for form more and for color less—until we change our nature, can we expect to find real attraction in the arrangement of a few flowers or in the composition of a garden?

It remains to add that the volume before us is a generous folio, handsomely printed, and embellished with a large number of interesting illustrations in color prepared expressly by native artists. These include a number of interiors, and it is no mean praise of the work to say that it deserves a place (as being supplementary) beside Mr. Morse's 'Japanese Homes.'

Life and Works of Horace Mann. 5 vols. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1891.

FROM the preface, which is bound up with vol. ii, we learn that this edition, in the main a reissue after many years, is "in response to a continuing demand for Mr. Mann's educational writings." In fact, apart from the *Life* by his widow, these volumes show only the educator in Horace Mann. Lectures and addresses, and the twelve annual school reports, with extracts from editorial articles in the *Common-School Journal*, are all devoted to a single theme. Historically, the compilation merits a place in the library of every institution of learning, and its present utility cannot be doubted in spite of Mr. Mann's proximity and old-fashioned point of view. For example, his remarks on co-education in his inaugural address at Antioch College are full of sound sense. So, in his twelfth report as Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, his argument against sectarian religious instruction in the schools is inexpugnable, though he held fast to the compulsory reading of the Bible in the schools, and seemed to pity the committeeman who assigned as a reason for excluding the Scriptures in his district the fact that "they are not calculated for a school-book: the style and phraseology are too difficult to be read." Of course, he had still less toleration for the committeeman who reported, as to the Testament, that "objections have been raised against it by some teachers, on account of many of the verses not ending with a full stop."

Mr. Mann's faith in the Bible was sufficiently robust to suit the most orthodox, and, coupled with his faith in phrenology (his present editor is George Combe Mann), it led him into some extraordinary trains of thought. In the address already cited, he held it "to be morally impossible for God to have created, in the beginning, such men and women as we find the human race, in their physical condition, now to be." He appealed to the records of the book of Genesis, "which contains the earliest annals of the human family." For the first 2369 years "not a single instance is recorded of a child born blind, or deaf, or dumb, or idiotic, or malformed in any way! . . . Not one man or woman died of disease. . . . No cholera infantum, scarlatina, measles,

smallpox—not even a toothache! So extraordinary a thing was it for a son to die before his father that an instance of it is deemed worthy of special notice.”

In contending (Report for 1846) for State education, he offers a test of the validity of his reasoning which he thinks “defies denial or evasion,” namely:

“We prohibit infanticide under penalty of death. We practise a refinement in this particular: the life of an infant is inviolable even before he is born. . . . But why preserve the natural life of a child, why preserve unborn embryos of life, if we do not intend to watch over and to protect them, and to expand their subsequent existence into usefulness and happiness? . . . We are brought, then, to this startling but inevitable alternative—the natural life of an infant should be extinguished as soon as it is born, or the means should be provided to save that life from being a curse to its possessor; and, therefore, every State is morally bound to enact a code of laws legalizing and enforcing infanticide, or a code of laws establishing free schools.”

We commend this dilemma to our Socialist friends, that they may supply the second term to suit themselves.

These volumes suggest many reflections not intended to be aroused, and it would be easy to comment further upon them. We close with remarking that as far back as July, 1848, the Irish immigration had so affected the population of Boston that in the primary schools more than half the ten thousand children were of foreign parentage.

Principles of Political Economy. By Arthur Latham Perry, LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THIS is not, as might easily be supposed, a new edition of Prof. Perry's ‘Political Economy’—of which, by the way, twenty-one editions have been published—but a newly constructed book. The author desired to leave behind him a manual which should contain a fuller exposition of the principles of the science, and less historical matter, while he sought to emphasize the application of these principles to some of the pernicious legislation from which we are now suffering and are likely to suffer. In substance, however, the books are similar, and we observe few references in the volume before us to recent contributions to the science; the names of Cairnes, Rogers, Sidgwick, and Marshall not being mentioned. In fact, most modern researches would be, in the author's opinion, irrelevant, owing to the restricted view which he takes of the science. While there is much to be said in favor of limiting the range of economic inquiries, as necessary to preserve their definiteness, it cannot be denied that a system which disposes of the theory of rent by insisting upon a particular definition of value, and which relegates the doctrine of Malthus to the domain of physiology, is too narrow to be altogether satisfactory.

At the same time it is quite possible to construct a political economy, as the author has done, which shall have a merit of its own in making prominent a few highly important truths. By confining attention to the matter of buying and selling as the proper subject of the science, it becomes easy to explode some common fallacies. Since two parties are necessary to an exchange, the principle of diversity of advantages is disclosed at once, and with it the whole theory of trade. Again, as it scarcely admits of denial that the motive in buying and selling is gain, the consequence is easily deduced that Government is not proper-

ly constituted for engaging in such transactions. As to the constitutional argument against protection, however, we fear that the last legal-tender decision has rendered it futile.

In spite of the title of the book, we apprehend that for most persons its chief interest will be in its practical applications. There is a profusion of anecdote and quotation, much of which is effective and most of which is entertaining. The historical element is still prominent, and current events are considered in their bearing upon the principles laid down. The style is animated and often colloquial, and it is impossible not to be struck with the vigor with which the author maintains his propositions. While most economists would differ radically with him on many points, it is quite probable that the general good sense of his conclusions will make his book useful to readers who are not prepared to undertake abstruse investigations, and in this way a large class of citizens will be put in possession of a great deal of information which they require for the proper discharge of their political duties. We could easily prolong our comments, but Prof. Perry's books are too well known to the public to require any extended notice from us.

A Student's History of England from the Earliest Times to 1885. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner. Vol. I., B. C. 55—A. D. 1509. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. xxxii+378.

EVERY teacher of English history has reason to rejoice that the historian of the Stuart reigns has found time to write an extended general treatise for the use of schools. So long as text-books are a necessity, there is an obvious advantage in having the guidance of a master. Besides, for other reasons, we have really needed a book such as Prof. Gardiner has given us, one somewhat fuller in details and better provided with aids to study than is Green's ‘Short History,’ the only work which is at all likely to prove a serious rival. There are, however, no maps in the ‘Student's History’; and it is to be regretted that the valuable reference-lists were not greatly extended. No opportunity should be lost to lead even the young student beyond the narrow horizon of the text into the greater world of the library. The genealogical tables are excellent. Particularly is this true of the twenty-one special tables, placed in their proper connections throughout the book, and carefully designed to aid the pupil where he most needs such assistance.

A unique feature consists of the very numerous illustrations. These have been prepared under the direction of Mr. St. John Hope, Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries, and they throw light on almost every phase of English life in all ages. Among others we find representations of domestic furniture, costume, armor, historic events, architecture, agricultural processes, and of various articles of manufacture, from the rude flint scraper of the river-drift to the ship of the fifteenth century. Never, perhaps, in such a treatise, has pictorial illustration been used with so good effect. The alert teacher will find here ample material for useful lessons by leading the pupil to draw the proper inferences and make the proper interpretations and comparisons.

The author writes for “such students as have already an elementary knowledge of the main facts of English history,” and aims at meeting their needs by the use of plain language, and by the avoidance of multiplicity of details. In the accomplishment of this purpose he has been fairly successful, though we cannot give him unqualified praise. Any affect-

tation of simplicity of diction, of childlike phrase, in a work of this grade is out of place. It leads to vague generalization. Educators are beginning to realize more and more that the young student of history requires much stronger meat than is usually set before him. His mind should be lifted up, his faculties put upon the strain, his aspirations aroused. Clearness of style and careful analysis are indeed essential; but to substitute general descriptions for exact terms, especially in the treatment of institutions, is to rob the subject of much of its scientific value. The remarkable success with which good teachers have been able to use Green's ‘Short History,’ even in the grammar school, is due largely to its dignified and suggestive style, constantly inviting and stimulating the best thought of both pupil and instructor. Prof. Gardiner's offence is not serious in this regard, and it is noticeable, perhaps, only in the opening chapters. Yet one cannot help regretting that he did not employ consistently the natural and fascinating manner which lends such a charm to his ‘Thirty Years' War’ and the ‘Puritan Revolution.’

The present volume is divided into four parts: (1.) England before the Norman Conquest; (2.) The Norman and Angevin Kings; (3.) The Growth of the Parliamentary Constitution, 1199-1399; (4.) Lancaster, York, and Tudor, 1399-1509. The first division, consisting of six chapters, opens with an introductory account of ancient Britain. The characteristics of palæolithic, neolithic, and Celtic man are tersely described. The discussion of the English settlements, the strife of the early kingdoms, and the growth of the West Saxon and Danish monarchies, is clear and well arranged. Still this first part is, on the whole, the least successful division of the book. The treatment of institutions, in particular, lacks fulness and precision. Practically nothing of value is given as to the government of Roman provincial towns; and, considering the wealth of recent literature relating to the subject, the old English constitution receives scarcely the careful attention which it deserves. For example, some of the statements regarding the *gesiths* may prove misleading. It is not strictly accurate to say that the *gesiths* in their relation to the *eorls* “were called *eorls* or men of noble descent”; or that the name *gesiths* “was abandoned for that of *thegns*, or servants, when they—as was soon the case—ceased to live with their chief and had houses and lands of their own, though they were still bound to military service.” As a class, the *gesiths*—if they existed in England from the beginning—were not identical with the *eorls*. True, in many cases, it is natural to suppose that “they were probably all of them *eorls*.” But nobility by service, as such, is opposed to nobility by blood. Theoretically, the *comitatus* of the chief, like the chief himself, was originally chosen solely on account of valor or military skill. Nor is it clear that the *gesiths* were superseded directly by the *thegns*. For a time, at least, as Konrad Maurer has shown, *gesiths* and *thegns* coexisted as distinct classes. Moreover, the name *thegn* does not mean “servant,” as suggested, but “warrior.”

The remaining three parts, constituting the body of the volume, are admirably well done. The political and institutional development is given due prominence. The style is compact, vigorous, and interesting. There is no lack of precision; and in the selection of the details the hand of a scholar thoroughly conversant with the sources and with the results of recent criticism is plainly revealed. It is a little surprising, however, to find the author seemingly

repeating the old error respecting the merchant gild. Speaking of the first borough charters, he declares that "in all these instances the governing body acknowledged by the charter was the merchant gild. It, to the exclusion of the townsmen who were not admitted to it, received authority to regulate trade to its own advantage, to choose officers, the principal officer being usually styled an alderman, with power to keep order and generally to provide for the well-being of the place." In practice, of course, the gild through its influence may usually have controlled the affairs of the borough. But, since the appearance in 1883 of Dr. Gross's 'Gilda Mercatoria,' recently expanded into his larger treatise, it may be regarded as definitively settled that the gild organization and the governing body of the town were in theory entirely distinct.

But whatever imperfections may be pointed out in Prof. Gardiner's book will not detract materially from its value. It is destined to take its place, we feel sure, as the leading textbook in general English history.

Taxidermy and Zoological Collecting: A Complete Handbook for the Amateur Taxidermist, Collector, Osteologist, Museum-builder, Sportsman, and Traveller. By William T. Hornaday. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. 362. Illustrated.

The fact that Mr. Hornaday has retired may in part account for the readiness with which he gives out what by fellows of the craft are held as professional secrets. How such an enthusiast in the business could decide to retire is an unanswered question, unless, perhaps, it was a consequence of his exasperating experiences with rays and sharks, "the meanest of all subjects that vex the soul of the taxidermist." His book is a bulky, profusely illustrated volume, the contents of which, though in the main relating to results of his own labors or those of his comrades, give information on the majority of the topics by which it is demanded for either professionals or amateurs. The text is written in a lively style, and, aided by the numerous diagrams, conveys very clear ideas of the different devices and modes of procedure. A number of

the cuts are drawn from single pieces or groups, of national renown, in the production of which the author has fully established his claim to rank as a master in his art.

The book is thoroughly modern; because of this, certain methods of manipulation, and receipts for special processes, as removal of stains, grease, etc., no longer appear as they did in older works. In regard to the collection and preparation of skins and skeletons, and in the instructions for mounting, the volume is most satisfactory. The section devoted to insects is admirable. Marine collectors will regret that several pages, with cuts of drags, tow nets, tangles, and grapples, were not added for their benefit. There is also reason to wish the proof-reader had been a little more wakeful.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dead Man's Diary. New York: W. D. Rowland. Buckbee, Sarah E. A Primary Word Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Colvin, Sidney. Letters of John Keats to his Family and Friends. Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
Conder, Prof. J. The Flowers of Japan and the Art of Floral Arrangement. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Cook, William. The Corporation Problem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
Delpit, Albert. Her Sister's Rival. Chicago: Laird & Leo. 50 cents.
Durand, A. M. Costa, et le Royaume du Dahomey. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Escalanson, A. Réécits d'Histoire de France. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 75 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. Ties—Human and Divine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Foster, Prof. M. A. A Text-Book of Physiology. Fifth Edition. Part IV. Macmillan & Co.
Flügel, F. English-German and German-English Dictionary. Parts 5-7. B. Westermann & Co.
Gibbins, H. de B. The History of Commerce in Europe. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Gordon, Julien. A Puritan Pagan. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Haldheim, L. Wife and Woman. Robert Bonner's Sons. \$1.
Hancock, A. U. Old Abraham Jackson. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.
Hardy, Thomas. A Group of Noble Dames. Harper & Bros.
Hawthorne, Julian, and Lemmon, Leonard. American Literature. Part IV. Macmillan & Co.
P. O. Heath & Co. \$1.25.
Heimburg, W. An Insignificant Woman. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Heimburg, W. Misjudged. Worthington Co.
Ireland, Mrs. Alexander. Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Javier, T. A. The Uncle of an Angel, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros.
Johnson, Rev. J. B. Things Present and Things to Come. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Jones, D. A. The Business Corporation Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 75 cents.
Kiehlund, Alexander. Tales of Two Countries. Harper & Bros. \$1.
Kimball, J. C. Zoology as Related to Evolution. D. Appleton & Co. 10 cents.
Kinglake, A. W. Eothen. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Koop, August. English Idioms with their German Equivalents. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof. 90 cents.

Lander, W. S. Imaginary Conversations. Vol. I. London: J. M. Dent & Co. \$1.25.
Lightfoot, J. B. The Apostolic Fathers. Macmillan & Co. \$4.
Ludlum, Jean K. Under a Cloud. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Lumby, Rev. J. R. II Kings. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Lyall, Sir Alfred. Natural Religion in India. Macmillan & Co.
Macalpine, Avery. A Man's Conscience. Harper & Bros.
Macfarlane, Dr. A. W. Insomnia and its Therapeutics. William Wood & Co. \$1.75.
Marshall, Prof. A. Principles of Economics. Vol. I. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. \$3.
Martineau, James. Types of Ethical Theory. 3d ed., revised. Macmillan & Co. \$2.60.
Maupassant, Guy de. Contes et Nouvelles. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Mayhew, A. L. Synopsis of Old English Phonology. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
McReisham, E. D. Romans Dissected. Edinburgh: T. & F. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
McQueary, Rev. Howard. Ecclesiastical Liberty. United States Book Co.
Molière, J. B. P. Les Précieuses Ridicules. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Ohnet, G. A Debt of Hatred. Translated by E. P. Robell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
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